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ABSTRACT

This study of women's correctional programs identifies programs and services for women incarcerated in jails and prisons, and also outlines the range and types of community-based programs available to them. In addition it also profiles the typical women inmate, providing information on the age distribution, marital status, number of children, educational and vocational attainment, criminal history, and the attitudes of the women towards themselves and the jobs they held in the past. It includes a section on the criminal justice process, the methodology used in compiling the study, the research instruments used, and a list by state of women's correctional institutions with pertinent statistics. (PFS)

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RESEARCH

national study of
WOMEN'S CORRECTIONAL PROGRAMS

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National Study
of
Women's Correctional Programs

By

Ruth M. Glick, Ph. D.

Virginia V. Neto

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FOREWORD

Until recently, the problems of female offenders have been largely ignored because women comprised a very small percentage of the total adult offender population. As the crime rate among women grew substantially during the past decade, the housing and treatment of women offenders became matters of greater concern.

The National Study of Women's Correctional Programs was undertaken to identify programs and services for women incarcerated in jails and prisons and to outline the range and types of community-based programs available to them.

The study also profiles the typical woman inmate, providing information on the age distribution, marital status, number of children, educational and vocational attainment, criminal history, and the attitudes of the women towards themselves and the jobs they held in the past. Although the reported results varied by state, the overall findings showed that:

-- Approximately two-thirds of incarcerated women are under 30.

-- Many are black.

-- Only about one-half of the women had dependent children living at home prior to their incarceration; the children of about 85 percent of the inmates were cared for by the women's parents or other relatives.

-- Over half the women had received welfare as adults; one-third had received welfare as children.

-- A great majority of the women had worked at some time in their lives. However, whether or not they had worked had no apparent relationship to the type of crime committed.

-- 43 percent of the women felons were incarcerated for violent crimes such as murder or armed robbery; 29 percent were incarcerated for property crimes such as forgery or fraud; and 22 percent were incarcerated for drug-related offenses.

Although it provides a wealth of information, the study is limited by the lack of in-depth analysis and interpretation of the data base. To remedy this deficiency, the Institute is currently examining some of the interrelationships among various data, and is considering plans for a secondary analysis to illuminate the implications of the data.

Despite its limitations, this project is the first comprehensive effort to catalog information on women offenders. As such, it provides background materials that can serve as a starting point for exploring significant issues pertaining to women offenders.

Gerald M. Caplan
Director
National Institute of Law Enforcement
and Criminal Justice

April 1977

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SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The National Study of Women's Correctional Programs was funded by Law Enforcement Assistance Administration to conduct the first comprehensive examination of programs and services provided for women in correctional institutions, as well as to develop a demographic portrait of the incarcerated woman offender. Sixteen state prisons, 46 county jails and 36 community-based programs, were studied in 14 states. Data came from several sources: administrators, staff, consultant observations, and an inmate questionnaire administered to 1,607 inmates representing 6,466 incarcerated women.

In most states, unsentenced women and sentenced misdemeanants were held in county jails, while convicted felons served their sentences in state prisons. In Massachusetts, however, unsentenced women and misdemeanants were detained in the state prison; in four states women served misdemeanant sentences of one year or less in the state prison.

Institutions tended to reflect the political climate and socio-economic conditions of the state or local community. Inmates also reflected state differences, especially in terms of their ethnic distribution, educational level, and even their offenses.

INSTITUTIONAL PROFILES

LOCATION: Prisons for women are less remote than they once were, primarily because surrounding communities have expanded, making more services available within these communities. However, many prisons continue to be remote from inmates' families and not readily accessible by public transportation.

Most of the jails are located in urban areas close to public transportation, facilitating family visits, but only a few jails utilize the many services available in the larger community.

Community-based programs were most accessible to families and community services.

The capacity of women's institutions ranged from 16 in the Minnesota Property Offender Program to 979 in the Sybil Brand Institute, Los Angeles County. In almost all institutions capacity exceeded the actual inmate population.

SECURITY: Only one woman's prison was classified as maximum security, but 27 of 41 jail units were classified maximum.

PHYSICAL ADEQUACY: Four types of design for women's prisons were identified: the campus, the complex, single building, and cottage. Most jail sections for women occupied all or part of a floor of the main jail, some occupied a separate building. Community-based programs for women were usually operated in large private residences.

Space and condition were important inter-related factors in the physical adequacy of an institution. On a Physical Adequacy Index, community-based programs scored highest, followed by prisons and lastly jails.

Although three out of four prisons provided individual cells or rooms for inmates, only 9 of 57 jails used individual cells as the primary housing unit. Despite the single cell trend for women inmates, the majority of incarcerated women were housed in multiple cells and dormitories.

The physical adequacy of an institution was directly related to program richness. The more adequate a physical facility the broader the range of services provided in institutional programs. It is unlikely that a program can be maintained in an institution unless space is allocated, furnished and supplied for that specific program.

SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT: The physical settings in institutions ranged from strictly penal (concrete floors, steel bars, etc.) to simply institutional, similar to colleges and other group accommodations in the community. Ratings on this dimension were combined into a normalization index.

Community-based programs ranked much higher on normalization than prisons which, in turn, were more normalized than jails.

Normalization was positively correlated with Physical Adequacy in both prisons and jails. The more adequate the institution the more likely it would have a normalized atmosphere.

The Inmate Autonomy Index measured the degree to which inmates made day-to-day decisions affecting their institutional life.

Inmate autonomy within the institution was lowest in jails and about equal in prisons and community-based programs. However, most community-based programs, especially work-release centers and halfway houses, offered more autonomy to inmates in the community itself.

Was inmate autonomy related to a normalized atmosphere? Yes, but normalization in an institution had to increase substantially before inmate autonomy increased.

ADMINISTRATION: Between March 1975 and March 1976 the superintendent was replaced in 8 of the 14 major state prisons for women. Only 3 of the 14 prisons had had a stable administration for several years or more.

Institutional goals as stated by administrators varied by type of institution. Prison administrators usually espoused treatment and rehabilitation goals; jail administrators were primarily oriented toward custody; community program directors saw reintegration of the offender as their primary goal.

INTAKE-TRANSITION TO INSTITUTIONAL LIFE: Many prisons and a few large jails maintained separate units where new inmates were housed for a few days to five weeks.

Most prisons conducted some form of orientation for new inmates, but most jails did not. Orientation might be a fairly informal process or an organized series of lectures and activities dealing with all aspects of the institution.

While a general classification scheme was used in many jails, formal classification was rare. Most prisons used a formal classification process which included medical exams, educational, vocational and psychological testing. Classification was primarily a management tool for assigning the inmate to housing, jobs and programs as well as security status.

Intake criteria in community-based programs were usually exclusionary. Certain kinds of clients were not accepted, often resulting in the selection of the best risks for the program.

COUNSELING AND TREATMENT: Treatment in correctional institutions was conspicuous by its absence. Treatment staff, such as psychiatrists and psychologists, were most often involved in intake testing, court ordered examinations, and in the case of psychiatrists, prescribing medication. Counseling was often a duty of correctional officers, who were not necessarily trained and whose primary role was custodial.

Group sessions were more often unit management meetings than group therapy. On-going individual therapy was rare. Ten percent of women prisoners indicated that group sessions were helpful to them while in prison, and eight percent felt that these sessions would be helpful to them even after their release.

Counseling was a more integral part of community-based programs. Therapeutic communities for drug users were the most treatment-intense, while other community programs focused more on reality therapy and survival skills training.

HEALTH CARE: Most prisons provided intake examinations, routine medical care, and limited dental care. In some large jails medical examinations were given to women, but most jails did no medical screening; medical staff spent most of their time on the men's units and came to the women's side for sick call, pill call, or only on request. Emergency care was usually available in-house in prisons, but most jails utilized community hospitals for emergency care. Pre-natal care was usually available within the prison, but babies were delivered in a local hospital.

What were the most common medical problems of women inmates? According to medical staff, gynecological problems and "nerves" were most common. The most frequent chronic diseases reported were diabetes, hypertension and drug addiction or alcoholism.

A majority of institutions dispensed pain medications and tranquilizers or mood elevators to inmates. The proportion of inmates receiving tranquilizers or mood elevators ranged from 0% to 98%. It appears that tranquilizers may be used instead of program to help maintain control in an institutional setting.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING: Educational programs, which were found in all prisons and most large jails, usually offered remedial education, G.E.D. preparation, and sometimes junior college classes. Many jails housed so few sentenced women that educational programs were not economically feasible, although such programs might be available on the male side of the jail.

What were the educational needs of women inmates? Only fourteen percent of the inmates, usually older women, had not gone beyond eighth grade. The largest group (45%) had not completed high school. Thus, six out of ten women would theoretically be candidates for remedial education and/or G.E.D. preparation. At the same time, 40% of the inmates had a high school education or better and might best be served by college classes, adult education, or training.

Since educational level varied greatly from one state to another, the educational profile in a given institution sometimes revealed a predominance of inmates at one end of the spectrum or the other.

Vocational training in prisons and a few large jails concentrated on traditional areas of cosmetology, clerical skills, and food services. Data from the inmates themselves indicated that 43 percent of them had received prior training most often in clerical skills, cosmetology, or para-medical occupations. For the future, the inmates were most interested in clerical jobs, para-professional jobs (often medical), and professional or managerial jobs (perhaps unrealistically). Only three percent of the women aspired to work in traditionally male jobs in the skilled trades.

In the Minnesota and Washington prisons training release programs enabled women to select and take training in the community with two obvious advantages: 1) individualization of training and 2) no costly in-house capital out-lay.

In terms of the inmate's future, both inmates and staff placed the most value on educational programs; inmates also indicated that education was very valuable to them during incarceration.

WORK ASSIGNMENTS: In prisons work was an inmate's duty; in jails it was a privilege, usually reserved for sentenced women in trustee status. Work assignments were primarily oriented toward institutional maintenance, with little consideration given to on-the-job training or carry-over into the community. Work supervisors indicated that women preferred clerical jobs, but only ten percent of the jobs available were clerical. This directly relates to training needs and aspirations of inmates Pay was usually minimal or non-existent, although one small program in Minnesota paid wages of $1.00 per hour.

Work-release programs for women were extremely rare, involving only two percent of the total prison inmates and one percent of jail inmates.

Considering the positive attitudes toward work expressed by the inmates, their prior work experience and training, and their aspirations, it appears that institutional work could become a more significant program area.

RELIGION: Religious programs were available in almost all institutions and often involved community clergy and church volunteers. The chaplain was sometimes the primary "counselor" available to inmates. Religion was most often mentioned by women in prison as most worthwhile during their incarceration. In many jails religion was the only program offered.

RECREATION: The opportunity for physical exercise was often limited and sometimes non-existent for women in jail. In prisons, where indoor and outdoor space was usually available, exercise and sports were also available, but without regularly scheduled activities and recreational leaders, it appeared that many women did not participate. In fact, a higher proportion of jail than prison inmates felt that recreation was the most worthwhile program; perhaps, in part, because of their closer confinement, recreation was the only program which enabled women in jail to leave the cell area.

COMMUNITY-BASED PROGRAMS: In the study states, for every ten women in prison or jail there was one women in a community-based program. There were three basic types of programs: halfway houses, work-release centers, and treatment programs for drug abusers or alcoholics. Most programs took a reality approach, emphasizing jobs and survival skills; however, therapeutic communities for drug offenders emphasized changing the client through intensive therapeutic techniques.

PROFILE OF INCARCERATED WOMEN

AGE: Incarcerated women are young; two-thirds were under 30 years of age. The median age of unsentenced women and misdemeanants was 24 years; the median age of felons was 27 years. Girls under 18 years were usually not found in adult institutions.

ETHNIC GROUP: While Blacks comprised only 10% of the adult female population in the study states, 50% of the incarcerated women were black. Indians were also over-represented, but the proportion of Hispanic women (Puerto Ricans in New York and Mexicans in Texas and California) appeared similar to that in the general population.

EDUCATION: Although incarcerated women tended to be less educated than women as a whole, their educational level related directly to the state-wide median. In states where the median grade level completed by adult women is lower than for the country as a whole, inmates also had less education than inmates from other regions of the country.

Educational level was significantly related to ethnic group. Whites and Indians were better educated, followed by Blacks, with Hispancis notably behind the other groups.

MARITAL STATUS: At the time of their incarceration, 27% of the women were single, 19% were non-married but living with a man, 20% were married, 28% were separated or divorced, and 7% were widowed.

Although 60% of the women had been married at least once, only 10% of all inmates had actually been living with a husband prior to incarceration.

About one-third of the women had been involved in serial relationships including at least one marriage plus other non-marital living arrangements.

CHILDREN: Only 56% of the women had dependent children living at home prior to incarceration, although 73% of the women had actually borne children. The average number of children per inmate mother was 2.48, compared to 2.18 reported by the census for all families with children in 1973.

Who took care of the children while their mothers were incarcerated? It did not appear that children of incarcerated women were bound for foster homes. In 85% of the cases, the woman's parents or other relatives took the children; however, husbands provided only 10% of all child care arrangements. Ethnic differences in child care were significant, with Whites and Indians relying more on husbands and on non-relatives, including agencies.

CHILDHOOD: Half of the women came from two-parent homes; 31% lived with mother only; 3% with father only; and 4% lived with non-relatives, sometimes in foster homes but rarely in institutions.

WELFARE: Over half (56%) of the women had received welfare during their adult lives and one-third had received welfare during childhood. The welfare pattern of each state was mirrored in the proportion of inmates who had been on welfare, ranging from a low of 35% in Georgia to a high of 76% in Minnesota.

WORK: Almost all of the women had worked at some time in their lives; 40% had worked in the two months prior to incarceration. Whether or not a woman worked had no bearing on the type of crime she committed. This finding contradicts the opportunity theory of crime which postulates a link between increased participation in the labor force and a rise in crime.

ATTITUDES: On 26 attitudinal items, the women scored higher than expected on self-esteem. They expressed a desire to work and felt that working was an appropriate female role. However, they supported traditional sex roles, feeling that it is important for women to have children and for men to be the hard workers and primary support of the family. Although the inmates indicated that non-traditional jobs for women are all right, they strongly endorsed high status, white collar jobs.

OFFENSE: Misdemeanants serving one year or less had been convicted in the following proportions: 41% for property crimes (shoplifting, forgery, fraud); 20% for drug offenses; and 11% for violent crimes (usually assault, battery, or armed robbery).

Convicted felons were serving one year or more: 43% for violent crimes (murder, armed robbery); 29% for property crimes (forgery, fraud, some larceny); 22% for drug offenses.

Most unsentenced women had been charged with the following felony-type offenses: 30% for violent crimes; 22% drug offenses; and 14% forgery or fraud.

ARRESTS: Most arrests do not result in incarceration. In 1973 56% of all arrests of women were for misdemeanors such as drunkenness, drunk driving, disorderly conduct, but only 18% of the misdemeanants were in jail for this type of offense, 13% of the unsentenced women, and 4% of the felons. For violent crimes the reverse was true. Only 7% of female arrests were for violent offenses, but 43% of the felons serving prison sentences had been convicted of violent crimes.

The arrest and offense data highlight the differences between states and between areas within a state in the criminal climate and in the response of the criminal justice system.

OFFENSE HISTORY: Nearly one-third of the women had been arrested for the first time at age 17 or younger. Another 49% were first arrested between ages 18 and 24. Almost one-third of the women had spent time in juvenile institutions.

Property offenders were most often recidivists; murderers were most likely to be first offenders. The women with the most extensive involvement with the criminal justice system were the habitual offenders - prostitutes, drug offenders and petty thieves.

OFFENSE AND TYPE OF INCARCERATION: It is ironic that less serious offenders (sentenced misdemeanants) usually serve their time in jails under the tightest security with minimal program opportunities. The same is true of women awaiting trial who supposedly are innocent until proven guilty. So little was happening in jails with less than 100 women that the program section of this report does not even deal with these institutions. After one acknowledges the shorter time being served and the economic constraints of local jails, one is still faced with the problem of improving jail conditions for women.

This is not to imply that felons in prison were that well off -- only by contrast. Conditions varied greatly from one state to another and even within an institution, inmates participated in programs in varying degrees.

INTRODUCTION

BACKGROUND

Women offenders account for only a small proportion of all persons arrested and convicted of crimes. Because their number is small and their crimes generally less threatening to society, they have been easy to ignore, both by society itself and the criminal justice system in particular.

Research on the female offender has been minimal, both in terms of the characteristics of the offender population and the conditions of her incarceration. Much of what has been done is outdated.[1] Very few carefully designed studies exist that provide useful empirical data for planning meaningful programs and services for the convicted female offender. The few studies that do include demographic information on the offender population are often not readily comparable because of differences in definitions or lack of consistency in collecting information from one study to another.[2]

Although research on the female offender has been extremely limited, numerous books and articles have appeared in the last few years that present virtually the same unsubstantiated impressions of both the individual offender and the programs available to her in the correctional setting.[3] Quotes often appear out of context,[4] and the caveats and concerns of the original work are often ignored, (a condition that exists even when the original work is beyond reproach).

This lack of data is a problem that has been with us for a long time, and no one seems to have been unduly concerned. Why, now, a study of the female offender?

The changes that are affecting our entire society have begun to be felt even inside the walls of the most hidden of all institutions--the prison. Concern over legal and human rights has spread to include the rights of inmates, both male and female, (often as an aftermath of riots and disturbances by the inmates themselves).[5]

Special concern for the female offender has surfaced in recent years, largely due to growing public awareness of the changing role of women in society. This spotlight on women's roles has led some people to blame (or credit) the women's movement for the rising crime rate among women. Whether or not this is true is a matter of considerable conjecture. What is certain, however, is that the women's movement has helped to focus attention on the way women are treated by our criminal justice system. And this spotlight on treatment of the woman offender has stimulated demands for reform of the justice system.[6]

It is important to note that many of these demands for reform have come from outside the criminal justice system, often from groups with widely divergent interests and concerns. This often means that many new proposals for reform are acted upon simultaneously although they may conflict with one another, and often when they are greatly at odds with the philosophy of the existing system. In effect, this means that model programs are frequently superimposed on a system whose basic purpose is antithetical to the goals of the model, and this lack of consistency dooms the projects to failure. For example, model counseling programs which utilize such techniques as Transactional Analysis can fail miserably because the participants are unable to utilize their new communication skills in their interactions with staff who have not been trained in Transactional Analysis.

In the past, much of the thinking about women offenders drew heavily on the assumptions about women generally that have dominated the literature in psychology, psychiatry, medicine and other disciplines.[7] Many of these assumptions were variations on the Freudian theme that "anatomy is destiny." Women were defined primarily in terms of their biological and physiological make-up and their childbearing and childrearing functions became the basis for characterizing women as warm, nurturing, passive and dependent. These were considered the characterisitics of the "normal" or "good" woman.[8]

Conversely, women who failed to conform to society's expectations were labeled as "deviant" or "bad" and were presumed to be acting in response to the frustrations and the limitations imposed by their biological make-up, rebelling against their natural feminine roles.

The failures of such theoretical constructs were perhaps most apparent in efforts to ascribe these characteristics to women who were not white and middle-class, since these standards of femininity and of appropriate female behavior were defined largely in terms of an idealized norm that reflected dominant white, middle-class, male values. In those terms, a woman's primary role was seen as providing the life-support systems for her spouse, the assumptions being: that all women would marry, all marriages would remain intact, all wives would bear children, and all males could and would provide adequately for the needs of their families.

Theories of female criminality that link deviant behavior to a rejection of the female role fail to account for the large number of women for whom this idealized role was neither possible nor desirable. The implicit belief behind any theory that links female criminality with a rejection of the female role is an assumption that a rejection of one role means the desire to assume the opposite role, in this case to be "one of the boys."[9]

Many of these same assumptions are behind some of the current explanations of the rising female arrest rate. The media, among others, drawing heavily on the statistics in the Uniform Crime Report, assert that the apparent sharp increase in the female arrest rate is "the dark side of women's liberation."[10] Thus, the thinking goes, as women become liberated from traditional roles and enter the work force in greater number, they will become more like men in terms of participation in crime.[11] Since crime is viewed as a predominantly male stronghold, it is assumed that as women become more like men, the crime rate for women will rise until it equals that of men. There are several issues that must be considered in attempting to understand this line of reasoning. In the first place, one must question whether a causal relationship exists between any two or more social phenomena which occur within the same relative time frame. It is true that the women's liberation movement and the increase in arrests for females have occurred during the last ten or so years. However, during that same time frame we have seen several major and minor social upheavals --the war in Vietnam, the recession, Watergate, drugs, etc. It is virtually impossible to single out the women's liberation movement as the cause of the rise in female crime.[12]

A second issue that needs some clarification is the link between the women's liberation movement and women working outside the home. For most people, both males and females, work is dictated by economic necessity. Only a fortunate few have the luxury of working because they want to work, and because they like what they are doing. Most women work because they need the money.

Liberation is another matter entirely. It has legal, medical and social ramifications that go well beyond the world of work. Liberation means having a choice regarding whether and when to have children; getting married, staying married or not getting married at all; owning property and credit cards, and then, accepting responsibility for these decisions.

In part, of course, all of those choices have economic ramifications, but economic self-sufficiency is only one of many facets of liberation.

The importance of all of the assumptions about the causes of crime (for both males and females) is that these assumptions form the ideological underpinnings for the development of programs and services that are designed to correct or cure the presumed deficiency in the individual. Nagel[13] summarizes the history of correctional philosophy as the shift from "supernatural" to "psychological" to "social" forces as the cause(s) of crime. And both prison architecture and programs reflect these changes in philosophy.

The history of women's programs shows an early shift from punishment to treatment, when in the late 19th Century, social reformers urged the establishment of separate institutions for women. These new prisons were called reformatories and were intended to help women learn to accept appropriate female role behavior, which as Giallombardo[14] notes, meant "instilling certain standards of sexual morality and sobriety, and fitting them for their duties as mothers and homemakers."

Even the style of architecture of these institutions was designed to enhance this image. Small, home-like cottages with individual rooms were built to replace the monolithic penal structures that were the style for men. The programs reflected the emphasis on domestic skills, including sewing, laundry, cooking and institutional maintenance, as well as teaching ladylike behavior and good manners.[15]

Correctional programs for the female offender are still heavily steeped in the myths of appropriate female behavior and traditional sex roles. Eyman[16] as recently as 1971 suggests that a useful vocational program for females in prison might be in the dairy industry. She says,

> Dairymen are turning to women to help ease the labor shortage. Those dairymen who have tried women in milking operations are pleased with the results. *Women are proving to be better milkers than men and understand the problems of swollen udders, mastitis, and other mammary infections.**

It seems clear that we need a different approach to planning and implementing programs for the female offender, an approach based on an accurate profile of the offender as well as a more realistic assessment of her needs. It is not enough to develop programs based on presumed causes of crime, nor in terms of how the female offender may differ from her male counterpart. A more promising approach is to focus on the female offender as a woman, and examine how her needs relate to those of other women on the outside.

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*Italics ours.

Our study of women's prisons and jails revealed both great similarities and significant regional and local differences in the delivery and organization of programs and services for women, as well as the rationale behind them. We were, however, struck by the fact that certain trends and new directions in programs seemed to be gaining an almost unquestioned acceptance, even though many of these programs lacked any sound empirical underpinnings. In fact, many of the new programs are based on the same assumptions as the programs that preceded them.

It should be noted, that the major impetus for a large number of these innovations was the federal funding that made them possible. Federally funded programs have generally been developed in response to a variety of pressures and an assessment of needs at a national level. Unfortunately, this assessment at the national level does not always accurately reflect local conditions and needs. The result is that model programs developed in one locale may fail miserably when transplanted to another, often alien environment.

National statistics are unquestionably important for long range planning and analyzing population trends; however, for successful program planning, we need to know more about both the population and the community at the local level.

Obviously there are many changes that can and should be made in the criminal justice process that don't depend on the results of research but are dictated, rather, by human decency and a desire for justice.

Programs and services, however, fall into a different category. Without specific information about the client group to be served, such programs are often ill conceived and consequently doomed to failure. In order to guard against such failures and eventual disillusionment, we need to develop a systematic and comprehensive model for program planners that includes an on-going analysis of the characteristics and needs of the population, where research is recognized as an important planning tool and not an end in itself.

The planning process is, in essence, a matter of deciding 1) where we want to go, and 2) how we can get there. A third element, often overlooked or taken for granted, is the starting point--where are we now?

OBJECTIVES OF STUDY

The major purpose of the present study is to provide a comprehensive description of the range of programs and services available to the female offender in jails, prisons and community-based settings. Programs and services exist within a context that includes the physical environment (i.e. the institution), the participants in the programs (the inmates) and the larger social and political values and constraints at the state and local level.

METHODOLOGY

Since it was not feasible to study all of the state systems, a preliminary analysis of the patterns of incarceration of the female offender was conducted and 14 states were selected for the present study.* The states are: Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, New York, Massachusetts, North Carolina, Texas, Washington, and California.

Within each state, the following information was collected:

- Arrest and incarceration data, sentencing patterns, use of pre-trial release and probation as alternatives to incarceration, and population and demographic information.
- Descriptive data on the state prison for women and on jails in counties with a population of more than 250,000 and at least 15 women incarcerated. Data included such factors as the size and location of the facility, staffing patterns, programs and services available, rules and regulations, and correctional goals.
- Demographic data on a sample of the women incarcerated in these institutions. Information collected included biographical information such as childhood background,

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*For a complete discussion of the selection criteria that were used, see Appendix A, p. 210.

work history, offense and length of sentence. In addition, information was gathered on participation in programs in the institution, plus attitudinal information regarding work, self-esteem and traditional male/female roles.

- Descriptive data, similar to that collected on prisons and jails, were collected on community-based programs selected from as many different types as could be identified in the sample states.

The study institutions consisted of 16 state prisons, 46 local jails, and 36 community-based programs. Institutional data were collected on every institution except five jails which were used only for an inmate sample. In two small jails there were no female inmates to take the questionnaire; one prison and two jails did not permit an inmate sample to be taken.

The inmate sample, selected systematically from 15 prisons and 42 jails, included 1,607 inmates, who represented a total inmate population of 6,466 women.

A complete description of the methodology for the study, including the development of the data collection instruments and the selection of the inmate sample, appears in Appendix A, pp. 220-247.

ORGANIZATION OF THE REPORT

Section I. The Criminal Justice Process contains a brief summary of the criminal justice process in order to put into perspective the fact that we are describing a total system, even though correctional services in a state are not administratively united. This section also includes a discussion of criminal statistics and patterns of incarceration in the sample states.

Section II. Institutional Profiles is a description of the physical facilities in which women are incarcerated. Prisons, jails, and community-based programs are compared on such factors as size, location, condition and physical adequacy. Administrative aspects, such as staffing patterns, staff/inmate ratios and cost per inmate, are also included in this section.

Section III. Programs and Services contains a description of the programs and services available in prisons, jails and community-based programs. The state prisons and major metropolitan jails are described individually while moderate size and small jails are grouped. Community-based programs are grouped by type. Information was collected for nine program and service components of the institutions: Intake, Counseling/Treatment, Health Care, Education, Work Assignments and Work-Release, Religious Programs, Recreation and Food Services.

Section IV. Inmate Profile contains the profile of the incarcerated female offender based on a questionnaire administered to 1,607 women representing 6,466 women inmates in state prisons and county jails in 14 states.

Section V. View from the Inside explores the interrelationships between such variable as physical facilities, programs, administrative philosophy and inmate perspectives on programs.

Section VI. Community-based Programs is a separate analysis of data on community-based programs.

Section VII. Implications and Future Research Needs presents some implications of the data for program planning and identifies some future research needs.

The Epilogue is a post-script to the study, describing population and program changes in the year following the data collection phase.

NOTES

1. Marilyn Haft notes that "[t]he most recent comprehensive study of correctional facilities for women is J. Lekkerkerker, "Reformatories for Women in the United States (1931)." See footnote 1a in "Women in Prison," Prisoners Rights Sourcebook, edited by Michele G. Hermann and Marilyn G. Haft, Clark Boardman, New York, 1973, p. 352.

2. For example, the sections on work experience in a number of articles are not at all comparable. Not only are the listed jobs different, but the time frame for recording prior work experience is different in each article. This is not to say that the information, per se, is incorrect, but simply to underscore the problem of comparing or combining data from multiple sources. See Rose Giallombardo,

The Seasonless World: A Study of a Women's Prison, University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, Michigan (Ph.D. Dissertation, 1965), p. 103; Omar Hendrix, A Study in Neglect, Women's Prison Association, New York, 1972, p. 21; Carol Spencer and John Berecochea, "Vocational Training at the California Institution for Women," Department of Corrections, California, January 1971, p. 3; "Study of Female Offenders," Department of Social and Health Services, State of Washington Research Report, Vol. 3, No. 18, April 1971.

3. It is illuminating to examine the footnotes in some recent articles to see how many of them rely on journalistic accounts and personal descriptive narratives as documentation of the characteristics of the female offender and conditions in prisons and jails.

4. For example, several authors of articles refer to data from Margery Velimesis' Report on the Survey of 41 Pennsylvania County Court and Correctional Services for Women and Girl Offenders, 1969. Helen Gibson's article, "Women's Prisons: Laboratories for Penal Reform," Wisconsin Law Review, 1973, p. 224, quotes Velimesis as follows: "[she] found that 80 percent of all the women in jail or prison had children to support." Richard Palmer's article, "The Prisoner-Mother and Her Child," Capital University Law Review, Vol. 1, No. 1, p. 127, says Velimesis' data "showed that 60-70% [of the women surveyed] were not married, but that 80% of these unmarried women had children." (our emphasis). Interestingly, Velimesis' original report does not contain the data from which either of these figures could be derived.

5. Although riots at male institutions are generally more visible to the public, the fact is that "disturbances" (as the media like to say) have occurred in several women's prisons during the last 18 months.

6. Ann Grogan, "Women Locked Up: Feminist Perspectives and Alternatives," text of Keynote address at Conference of Women in Prison, Denver, Colorado, January 18, 1975.

7. The most comprehensive review of the early literature on female criminality appears in Dorie Klien's article, "The Etiology of Female Crime: A Review of the Literature," Issues In Criminology, Vol. 8, No. 2, Fall 1973, pp. 3-30.

8. Ibid., p. 17.

9. See Dale Hoffman-Bustamante, "The Nature of Female Criminality," Issues In Criminology, Vol. 8, No. 2, Fall 1973, pp. 117-136, for a discussion of the relationship between specific crimes and differential role expectations.

10. Daniel Green, "Crime Takes a Female Turn," National Observer, October 5, 1974. Also note that since August, 1974 to the present writing, similar statements linking liberation and crime have appeared in the New York Times (March 14, 1976), The San Francisco Chronicle (January 30, 1976) and The Los Angeles Times (February 27, 1976). Articles on the same subject have appeared in Newsweek (January 26, 1975) and Oui (April 1975).

11. Freda Adler, Sisters in Crime, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1975.

12. One must also note that the rise in crime is not absolutely accurate either. What is being reported is a rise in arrests.

13. William Nagel, The New Red Barn: A Critical Look at the Modern American Prison, Walker and Co., New York, 1973.

14. Giallombardo, op. cit., p. 11.

15. Ibid. It is interesting to note also that many of these early programs still survive despite the many changes that have occurred in society. Perhaps one of the most universal of all of these notions is reflected in the prison rules and regulations for females that punish "unladylike" or abusive language.

16. Joy Eyman, Prisons for Women, Springfield, Illinois, Charles C. Thomas, 1971, p. 60.

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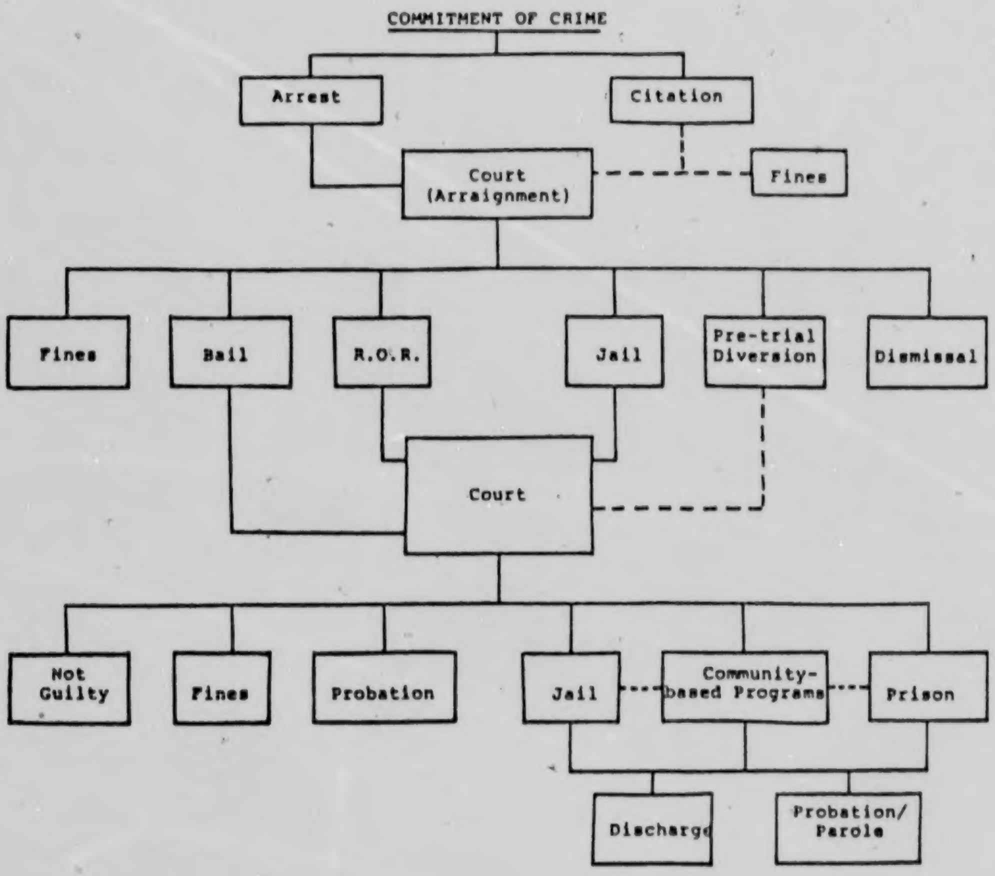
SECTION I. THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE PROCESS

The criminal justice system is not, in reality, a single system at all, but rather a series of inter-related, but autonomous agencies with specific designated functions in the criminal justice process. It has often been stated that women are given differential treatment at various stages in this process; whether or not this is true has been impossible to document.[1] A brief glance at the following chart shows some of the complexity of the system, which cuts across various jurisdictions -- local, county and state -- all of which have discretionary options from arrest to final disposition.


COMMITMENT OF CRIME
Arrest
Citation
Court (Arraignment)
Fines
Fines
Bail
R.O.R.
Jail
Pre-trial Diversion
Dismissal
Court
Not Guilty
Fines
Probation
Jail
Community-based Programs
Prison
Discharge
Probation/ Parole

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[1] See Data on Women Offenders, p. 6.

The first step in the process is handled by law-enforcement agencies. Some (but certainly not all) illegal actions (crimes) are reported to or detected by individual officers who have certain discretionary powers at this initial point of contact. Many factors, including his knowledge of the suspect, his assessment of the situation, and his impression of community expectations, influence the police officer's decision. The law in his jurisdiction may allow him some discretion in dealing with such offenses as possession of marijuana, shop-lifting or prostitution -- he may be able to issue a citation rather than remanding a person to custody. The more violent and blatant the crime, the narrower the options of the officer. We could ask at this point, does an officer respond differently to a female suspect than to a male? Many theories center around the "chivalry factor" of both law enforcement and courts, but there is very little solid information.

Once an arrest is made and the suspect is booked, other persons in other agencies become involved in the decision making process.[1] Judges have long had the power not only to set bail, but also to release a person on his/her own recognizance. This system tended to favor persons who could make bail or whose good standing in the community was obvious to the judge, but it discriminated against lower class or minority persons. It was this situation which led to formalized Release on Own Recognizance (ROR) programs and introduced a broader range of decision-makers into the system -- from law students in Omaha to volunteers in San Francisco to Pre-trial Services Agency in New York.

Ever since the Manhattan Court Project demonstrated the low risk involved in releasing selected suspects on their own recognizance, jurisdictions all over the country have initiated systems for identifying and releasing persons who might otherwise be detained in jail awaiting further court action. In Spring 1975, when our data were collected, all of the sample states had pre-trial release programs operating in at least one major county, and some of the states had such programs in all of the counties in our study.

In some counties, the pre-trial release concept has been extended to pre-trial diversion and supervised release of persons who would otherwise be held in jail. In pre-trial diversion programs, suspects are diverted from the criminal justice system by agreeing to participate in a program of training, education, counseling and/or work in lieu of going to jail. Diversion may occur just after arraignment, but often the suspect must first enter a plea of guilty or no contest in order to become eligible. After the suspect completes the program, charges may be dismissed (but often not expunged from the record).

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[1] According to the Bureau of Criminal Statistics, California Department of Justice, about 20% of all felony arrests are adjudicated, including "not guilty" findings by the court.

Supervised release while awaiting trial extends probation supervision and services to persons who might otherwise be held in jail prior to a finding of guilt or innocence.

Suspects who are not eligible for any of the foregoing programs await trial in jail as unsentenced inmates. In most states, unsentenced inmates are not permitted to mingle with sentenced offenders, and are generally held under tighter security with little or no opportunity to participate in any programs.

During the judicial process charges may be dropped due to insufficient evidence; if a charge is sustained, the individual may be fined, released on probation, or sentenced to a jail or prison term.

A sentence for a misdemeanant offense is generally spent in the county jail, with sentences ranging up to 12 months. In a few states, misdemeanants serve their sentence in the state prison.

A convicted felon serves a sentence of one year or more in the state prison, although in a few states a felony sentence may be served in the county jail.

Convicted offenders may, in some counties, be sentenced to a community-based residential program in lieu of incarceration in jail. Community-based programs may be run by the parole or probation department, public agencies, and private agencies. Participants are carefully screened according to any number of criteria, but almost all are in the low-risk, minimum security category.

Community-based programs may also exist following incarceration. These community-based programs usually known as the half-way house or work-release center are designed to assist the incarcerated offender in making the transition back to the community. These may be run by the state department of corrections, the sheriff's department, probation or parole, other public agencies, or the private sector of the community.

For many offenders the release from prison is followed by a period of parole which essentially provides only a minimum of direct supervision, but does proscribe the limits of an individual's activities.

The preceding description is a simplification of the many steps in the criminal justice process but it shows how the jails, prisons and community-based programs which will be described in this report fit into the total picture. It is important to note the flow of individuals through the criminal justice system, in order to understand the many factors which affect the statistics that are used for population projections and program planning.

CRIMINAL STATISTICS

For over forty years, the backbone of crime statistics in the United States has been the FBI Uniform Crime Reports. The annual release of UCR figures is usually accepted by the media and the public as the truth about crime in the nation.[1] As noted earlier, however, arrests are only one stage in a complicated process of law enforcement, court action and incarceration.

The data in the UCR is compiled from information collected at the local level, and since compiling data has low priority in many policing agencies, the precision of the figures is open to question. Without the UCR, however, it is likely that many states would not compile arrest statistics at all.

We are aware of inconsistencies in reporting between states, and even in jurisdictions within states. Numerical differences often reflect legislative or policy decisions or even different operational definitions of crime categories rather than incidence of crime, per se. In New York, for example, arrests for drug offenses declined sharply after prison terms became mandatory for second offenders. It is unclear whether the decline reflects a change in behavior on the part of the client population, law enforcement agencies and/or the courts. This is just one example of the need to interpret arrest data within the context of discretionary decision-making throughout the entire criminal justice process.

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[1] For a critical appraisal of Uniform Crime Reports see Criminal Statistics, Crime and Delinquency Topics: A Monograph Series compiled by Eugene Doleschal, (DHEW Publication No. (HSM) 72-9094).

Crime statistics on women have been making the headlines because of the high percentage increases in arrests which appear in the Uniform Crime Reports. However, when analyzing data it is important to remember that a percentage increase is inversely related to the size of the base figure. For example:

Arrests for Burglary[1]

MALE			FEMALE		
1960	1973	% incr.	1960	1973	% incr.
53,497	107,009	+100%	1,652	5,597	+238%

Although men were arrested for 53,512 more burglaries in 1973 than in 1960, and women were arrested for 3,945 more burglaries in the same time period, the percentage increase shows up much more dramatically for females because of the small number of arrests in the baseline years.

By viewing the statistics another way, we get a different impression of female burglary arrests. In 1960 women accounted for 1,652 out of a total of 55,149 burglary arrests, or 3% of the total; in 1973 they accounted for 5,597 arrests out of 112,606, or 5% of the total. This constitutes an increase of 2% for female burglary arrests as a proportion of all arrests for burglary.

The table below shows the proportionate change for selected crimes during the same years.

Female Arrests as a Percent of Total Arrests in Selected Crime Categories[2]

	1960	1973	Change
Homicide	17%	15%	-2%
Aggravated Assault	14%	14%	--
Robbery	5%	7%	+2%
Forgery	17%	27%	+10%
Fraud	15%	31%	+16%
Larceny	17%	32%	+15%
Drugs	14%	15%	+1%
Total Crimes	11%	16%	+5%

[1] Source: Crime in the United States - 1973. Uniform Crime Reports, Federal Bureau of Investigation, Washington, D.C., September, 1974, p. 126.

[2] Ibid.

Females accounted for 16% of all arrests in 1973, however, it should be noted that women comprise 52% of the adult population.

It is apparent that women are increasing their participation in monetary/property crimes--larceny, fraud and forgery, not in violent crimes.

DATA ON WOMEN OFFENDERS

Despite the obvious differences in arrest patterns for women and men, the Uniform Crime Report publishes only a few tables which separate the sexes. No data are presented by both sex and age although that information is collected. Data by sex and race are not even collected, although the reporting form could be slightly modified for this purpose.

Only five of the fourteen states in our sample compile statistics on court dispositions--Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Washington and California; of these states, only California has this information available by sex. Consequently, in spite of much concern about differential treatment of women in the courts, efforts to substantiate these opinions have been virtually non-existent.

At all stages of our search for basic demographic data, we were hampered by the lack of detailed information on women offenders, and by the inability of most agencies to provide information short of a case by case search of the records (which time would not permit).

The Bureau of the Census, through its National Prisoner Statistics program, takes an annual count of men and women in state and federal prisons, providing state by state totals of admissions, departures and end of the year populations. A special prisoner census was taken in 1972, but the sample was not designed to provide data on women. The same is true of the Survey of Inmates of Local Jails, 1972. The latest available jail data by state is from the 1970 National Jail Census.

In most states, the department of corrections publishes a report on inmate characteristics, generally on an annual basis. Information on the female inmates include age, race and offense, but here again, different methods of recording data make it difficult to compile information from one state to the next.

In the jails, even this meager information on the female offender is rarely available.

The Uniform Parole Reports published by the National Council on Crime and Delinquency are the only source of national statistics on parole. While the definitions used are uniform, reporting methods are not. Not all states report; of those that do, some report on a 100% basis; others on a 5% - 25% sample, and time periods covered are not uniform. However, tables are published separately for females. Since these data are collected by a non-government agency through voluntary agreements, information by state is considered confidential and is only available to the reporting state.

CRIMINAL JUSTICE STATUS

The patterns of incarceration for the female offender vary considerably from one state to the next, and often from county to county within a state. Because these differences often blur the distinctions between the jail and prison populations, we chose to define the inmate population in terms of their status in the criminal justice system, using the following definitions:

Unsentenced - those awaiting trial or sentencing

Misdemeanants - sentenced offenders serving one year or less

Felons - sentenced offenders serving more than one year

Of the total number of women in the study[1] (N=6466), 20.4% were unsentenced, 21.3% were misdemeanants and 58.1% were felons. Table 1.3.1 shows this distribution by state. The variations were, in part, a reflection of the population distribution in the state. New York and California, with large metropolitan jails, tend toward heavier incarceration at the local level. In rural states, such as North Carolina, the unsentenced population is apparently dispersed around the state, and therefore underrepresented in our sample counties.

[1] For a description of the sampling methodology, see Appendix A, pp. 224-235.

Table 1.3.1 Criminal Justice Status of Inmate Sample by State

	Criminal Justice Status						
	Unsentenced		Misdemeanants		Felons		Total
State	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	(N)
California	500	25.0	731	36.5	767	38.3	(2001)
New York	257	29.9	183	21.3	422	49.0	(861)
Texas	198	20.1	64	6.5	721	73.4	(983)
Illinois	[a]	[a]	16[b]	10.1[b]	143	89.9	(159)
Michigan	60	56.1	36[c]	33.6[c]	11[c]	10.3[c]	(107)
Florida	142	17.4	126	15.4	541	66.3	(816)
Massachusetts	10	11.1	15	16.7	65	72.2	(90)
Indiana	28	21.9	27	21.1	73	57.0	(128)
North Carolina	17	3.9	70	16.0	352	80.2	(439)
Georgia	45	9.8	70	15.3	341	74.5	(458)
Minnesota	9	13.2	4	5.9	55	80.9	(68)
Washington	31	14.3	25	11.5	161	74.2	(217)
Colorado	13	17.3	7	9.3	55	73.3	(75)
Nebraska	12	18.8	5	7.8	47	73.4	(64)
Total	1321	20.4	1379	21.3	3755	58.1	(6466)

[a] Unsentenced women were not included in the Illinois sample.

[b] Does not include misdemeanants serving sentences in jail.

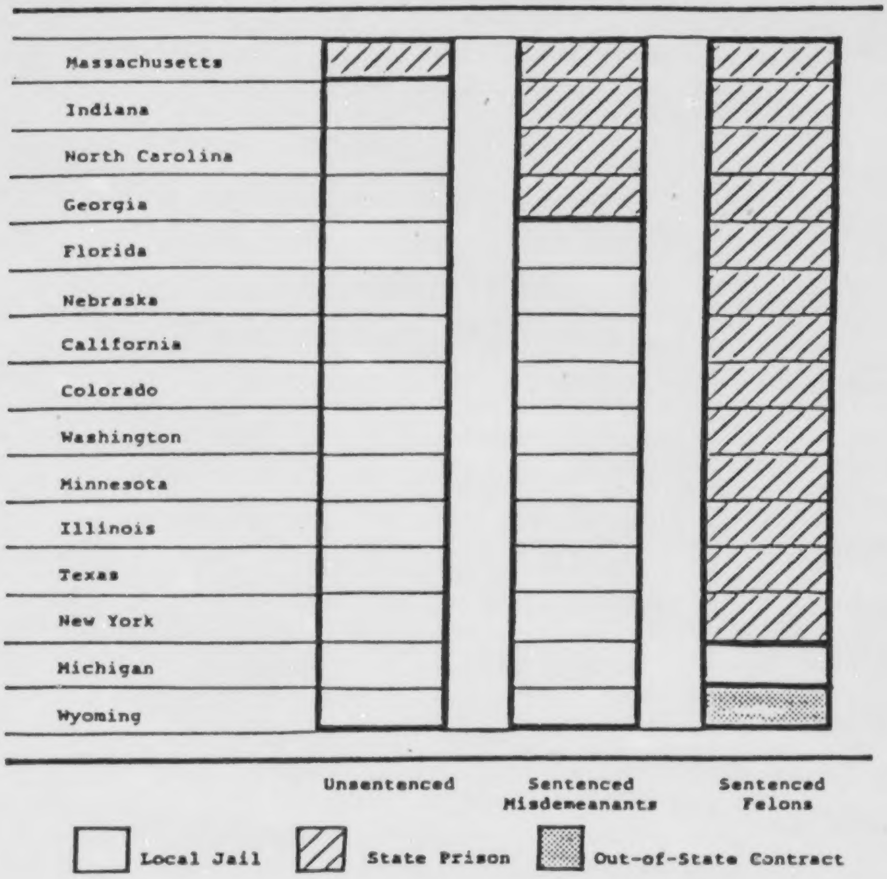
[c] Does not include sentenced misdemeanants or felons in the Detroit House of Corrections.

NOTE: The number of misdemeanants and unsentenced women is not a total for the state but only of the sample counties. Since the turnover of misdemeanants and unsentenced offenders is much higher than for sentenced felons, more women appear in the first two categories than in the felony group over a given period of time.

In all of the states except Massachusetts unsentenced women were held at the county jail. Misdemeanants were usually in the county jail, except in Massachusetts, Indiana, North Carolina and Georgia, where they served their sentence in the state prison. As depicted on Chart 1.3.1, the Illinois prison at Dwight also housed a small number of misdemeanants from downstate counties.

In every state felons were sent to the state prison with a few exceptions: Wyoming contracted with Nebraska to house its felons; the State of Michigan contracted felons to the Detroit House of Corrections, a municipal facility. To further confound the situation, the Fulton County Jail in Georgia kept some sentenced felons to work as trustees at the jail or to work in the governor's mansion. In Florida, a felony sentence of one to two-and-a-half years could be served in the local jail, but apparently this option was not exercised very often. In most of the states felons who were in the jail were awaiting transfer to the prison or were appealing their convictions.

Chart 1.3.1 Patterns of Incarceration by State



It is not uncommon in some states for women from small rural counties to be sent to larger counties or to the state institution for incarceration. Occasionally, federal prisoners are also boarded in state or local facilities, but their number is minimal, except in the Colorado Correctional Institution for Women and the Cook County Jail.

Despite the variations in incarceration patterns, 93.4% of the women in prisons were felons. In jails, 43.5% of the women were misdemeanants, and 46.7% were unsentenced.

SECTION II. INSTITUTIONAL PROFILE

Prisons, jails and to some extent, community-based facilities as well, have been developed, designed, built and rebuilt over the years in response to two basic (but often contradictory) societal pressures -- one, the need to punish and control convicted criminal offenders; the other, the desire to reform the offenders and return them to society as law-abiding citizens.

The definition of criminality and the prescriptions for its cure have changed repeatedly over the last hundred or more years, yet each generation of reformers and practitioners have left lasting monuments to their efforts. Consequently, we are often forced to run 20th century programs in 19th century buildings.

Even when the buildings are of more recent origin, the design, location, size or any number of other features often reflect a philosophy of corrections out of keeping with modern thought. What is innovative and radical in one era becomes antiquated and obsolete in the next.

It is obvious that the physical facility influences and circumscribes much of the activity that takes place within its boundaries. It is equally apparent that the mere availability of even the most ideally designed building is no guarantee that full advantage will be made of existing space.

In order to provide a framework for the description of programs and services available for the incarcerated female offender, we examined some of the major institutional variables that were, at least potentially, likely to influence both the availability of programs and the way in which these programs operated.[1]

The institutional variables that we selected fall into three categories, the physical environment, the social environment and administrative factors. The physical factors include: the location of the institution, the inmate capacity, the design of the facility, security level and physical adequacy (space and condition). Social environment factors include normalization of the environment and inmate autonomy. The administrative aspects include the administrator's goals or philosophy of corrections, the disciplinary regulations, staffing and costs.

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[1] For details of the Methodology, see the following sections in Appendix A: Institutional Data Collection, p. 237; Training Field Consultants, p. 240; Data Collection Procedures, p. 241; Development of Institutional Indices, p. 243.

PHYSICAL FACTORS

LOCATION

The roads leading to women's prisons are many and diverse. From Chicago you drive south on the freeway past old stone and brick neighborhoods into the open countryside to the small farming community of Dwight. A few turns and you are approaching an old building which might be a convent. If, however, you travel another 300 or so miles south to Vienna, you would see a striking example of modern architecture, with a "village square" in the center of the complex, two chapels, tennis courts, a baseball diamond, etc. From Tacoma (Washington) you cross a picturesque bridge over Puget Sound along with commuters returning home to a tranquil environment of suburbia or vacation homes. In Indianapolis you never leave the city streets to arrive at a typical institution of the late 19th century; it might be an orphanage or a home for unwed mothers.

In some cities you might walk past the county jail every day and never give it a thought, because it occupies one or two floors of a high rise county administration building.

One of the problems of attempting to describe the location of an institution vis-a-vis distance from or to another locality is the concept that distance is not absolute. Physical distance can be measured in miles, but miles do not reflect either the time required to cover that distance, the availability of transportation, nor the cultural attitudes toward travel. A southern Californian is likely to express distance in terms of how long it will take you to drive on the freeway; thus "It's about 30 minutes from here," can generally be interpreted as between 25 and 30 miles, and you're undoubtedly still within the city limits of Los Angeles. To an easterner, 30 miles often represents an excursion into the countryside, a vacation, or a special event. And of course, 30 miles on a winding mountain road through rain or snow is another matter entirely.

The inaccessible location of penal institutions, especially women's prisons, has been a frequent focus of attention which Arditi refers to as a "remoteness disadvantage."[1] Almost all (13) of the 16 prisons in our sample are located in rural or suburban areas with populations less than 20,000. In fact, 10 prisons are in towns or cities with less than 10,000 population.

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[1] Ralph R. Arditi, et al., "The Sexual Segregation of American Prisons." Mental Health Digest, Vol. 5, No. 9, September 1973, p. 19.

Many of these prisons in our sample were virtually isolated when they were built, but urban growth, suburban development and the concomitant improvements in highways have brought residential communities and their resources and services closer to some of these formerly remote areas. The rural location of some institutions is still a reality in a few cases, and "prison towns," which supply the institution with staff as well as certain ancillary services, still exist. However, the majority of women's institutions are located in or near sizable "service areas" where there is, at least nominally, a larger pool from which to recruit staff and select support services and programs.

One prison, Massachusetts Correctional Institution in Framingham is located in a medium-sized city, while two others are located in major metropolitan areas (Raleigh and Indianapolis). Nine of the 16 prisons are within 30 miles of a large city which could serve as a resource center for medical care, college programs, etc. Six prisons are located within 31 to 60 miles of a large city, while the Texas prison is 71 miles from Houston, the nearest large city.

Remoteness in terms of families is another matter. Prison inmates come from all over the state although the majority come from the major metropolitan area(s). Seven (7) of the prisons are within 40 miles of the state's major city, and 7 more are from 50 to 100 miles away. The North Carolina prison, although in Raleigh, is 160 miles from Charlotte, the largest city. Vienna is the most remote prison, 358 miles from Chicago. In geographically large states, women from other population centers may be very far from home; for example: San Francisco-Oakland is about 500 miles from the California prison; Dallas-Fort Worth nearly 200 miles from the Texas prison; and Buffalo nearly 500 miles from the New York prison. A woman from Wyoming will probably be separated from her family by at least 400 miles while she serves time in Nebraska. If banishment were the goal, it would be accomplished in some instances.

PUBLIC TRANSPORTATION

Eleven (11) of the 16 prisons did not have public transportation available within 5 miles of the prison. Only the Indiana Women's Prison had public transportation within two blocks of the institution. The remaining four prisons had public transportation available within 1-5 miles from the prison (North Carolina, Minnesota, Massachusetts, and Texas).

The combination of location and lack of public transportation means that in almost all prisons, access to family and to other ties in the home community is moderately or severely difficult. By considering the location in relationship to the metropolitan areas and the availability of public transportation, it is possible to assess the accessibility of the institution. Half (8) of the prisons in our sample were located in areas which made it very difficult for families to travel to and from the prison. Seven of the prisons were located in areas that made family travel to and from prison of moderate difficulty. Only the women's prison in Indiana was located in an area which made family visiting quite easy.

Most jails were located in metropolitan areas and generally afforded easy to moderate access to family, and all services and resources. Exceptions to this general finding were Westchester and Erie County Penitentiary in New York; San Francisco County (San Bruno Jail) in California. Most jails had public transportation available within 2 to 10 blocks of the jail. Exceptions to this were Erie County Penitentiary in New York; Santa Rita (Alameda County), Sybil Brand (Los Angeles County), Sacramento County, and San Francisco County jails in California; and Lake County Jail in Indiana.

Community-based programs were usually located in cities where families and community resources were easily or moderately accessible (if the women were from that community). This is the first of a number of physical features which clearly distinguish community-based facilities from traditional correctional institutions.

CAPACITY OF THE INSTITUTION

In the preliminary stages of this study, it became apparent that there was a direct relationship between the size of a state's population and the size of its institutional population. However, it also became apparent that this relationship was not as neat and orderly as one might expect. Chart 2.1.1 shows the comparative size of the adult female populations in the study states, ranging from California with over 7 million women to Nebraska with about half a million. By superimposing on that chart another chart of prison populations (in hundreds), we readily see the disparity among states in terms of incarceration of women. (Chart 2.1.2). New York, with about the same population as California, has about half as many women imprisoned. Illinois shows a similar trend - with more than half as many women as California, but only one-fifth the number imprisoned. When we get to Texas, however, we find the opposite effect, the fourth state in population but the second in felony incarceration. A similar pattern is found in Florida and other southeast states. Differences in state patterns of incarceration are discussed more fully in the section on offenses in the Inmate Profile, Section IV.

Chart 2.1.1

STATE POPULATIONS

WOMEN - 18 YEARS & OVER

(1973)

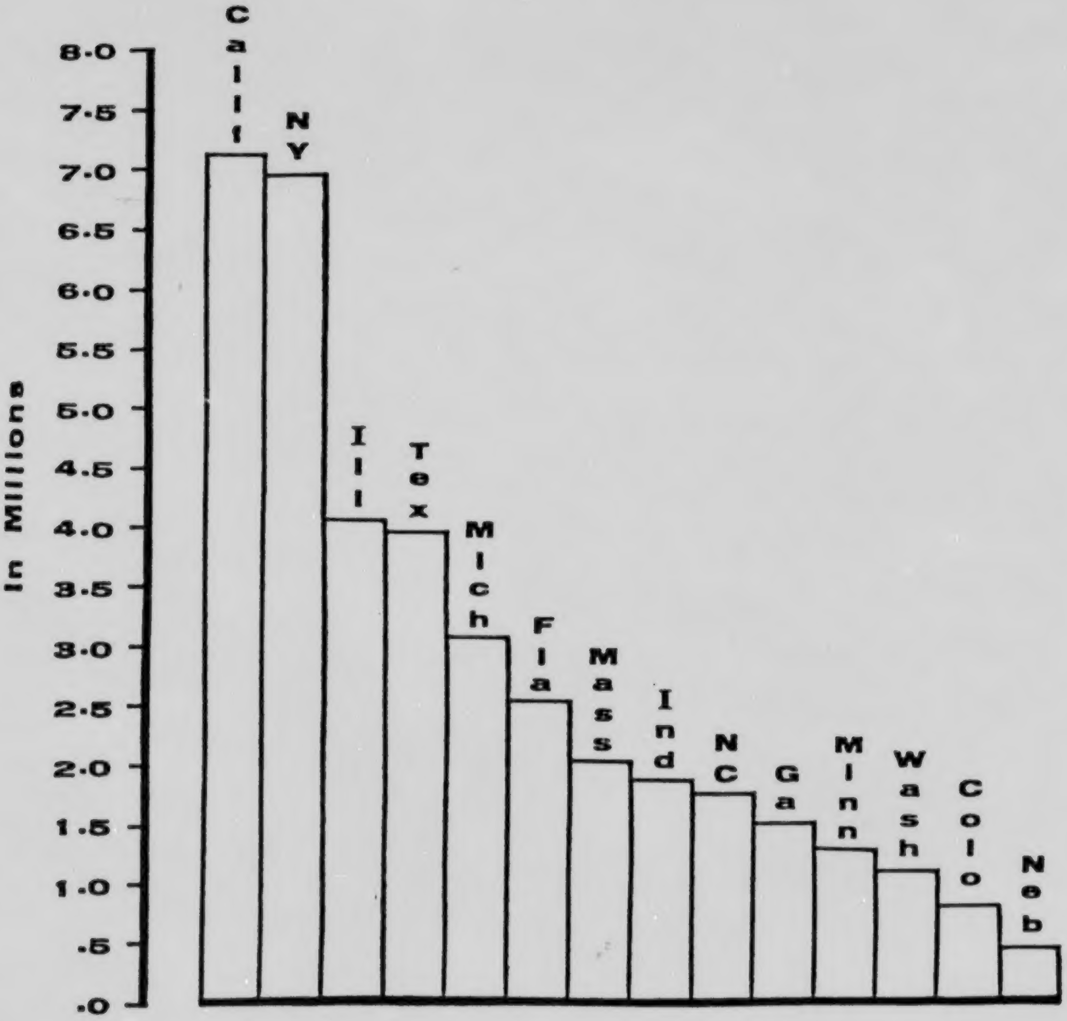


Chart 2.1.2

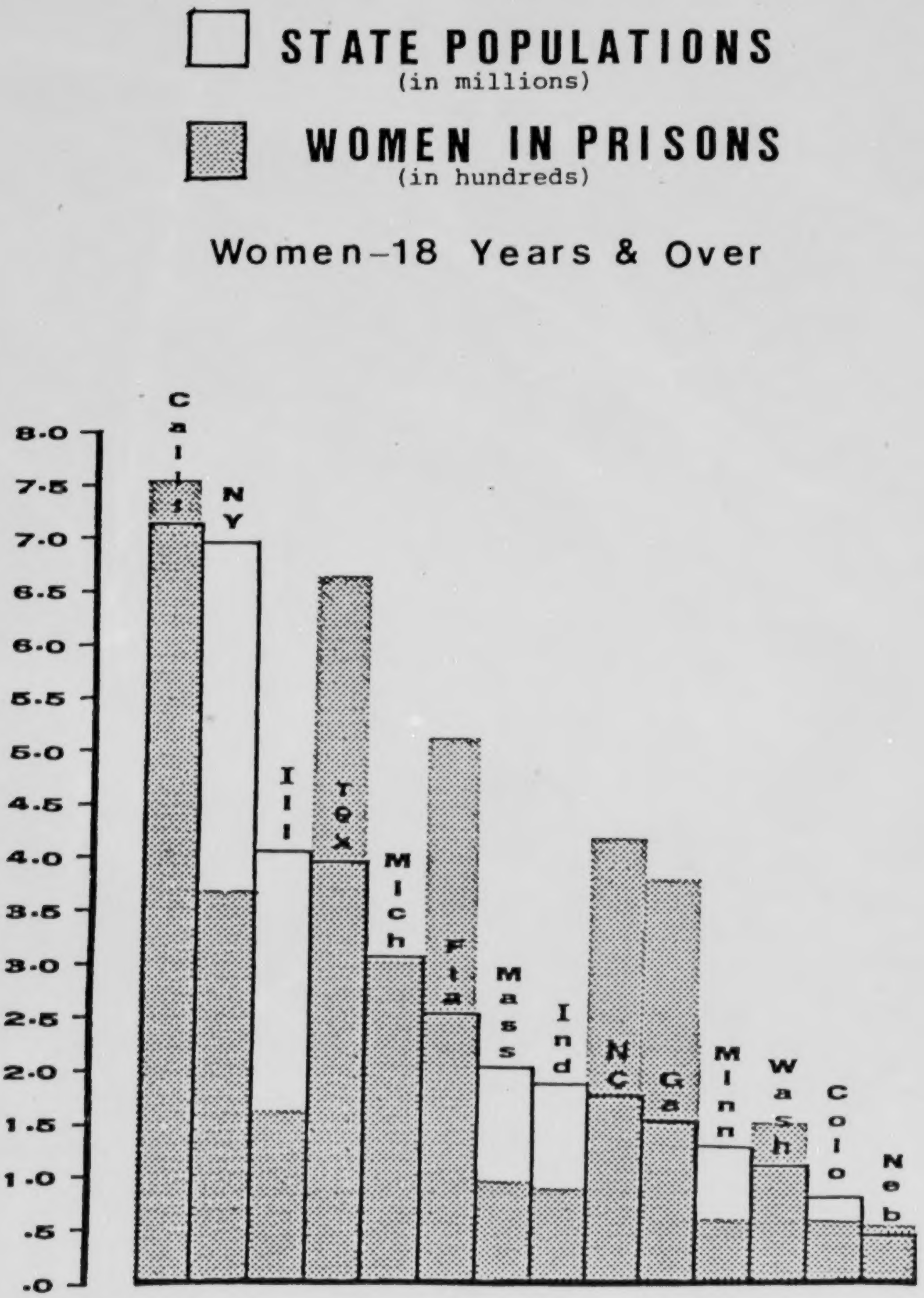
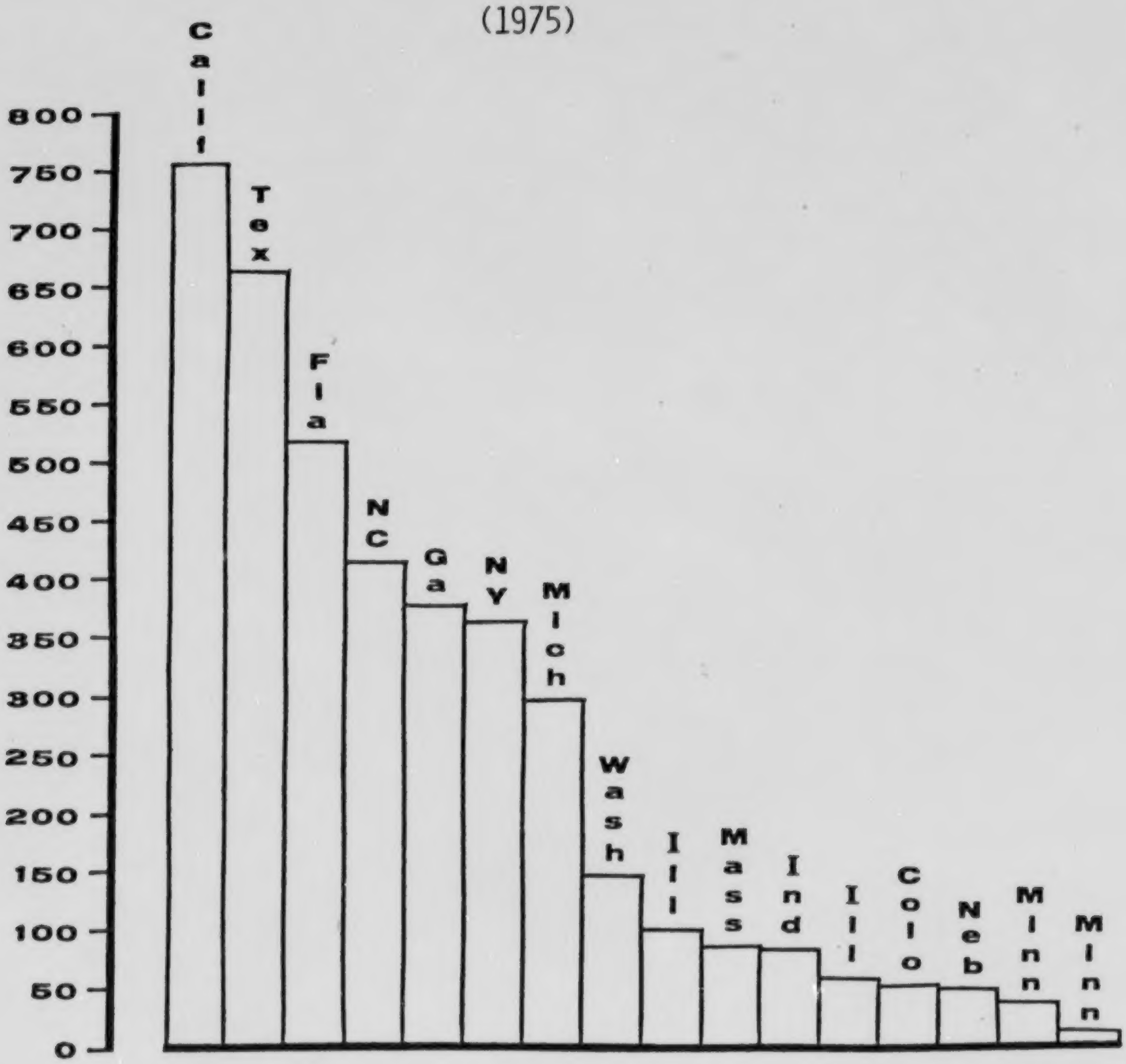

STATE POPULATIONS
(in millions)
WOMEN IN PRISONS
(in hundreds)
Women-18 Years & Over
8.0
7.5
7.0
6.5
6.0
5.5
5.0
4.5
4.0
3.5
3.0
2.5
2.0
1.5
1.0
.5
.0
Calif
NY
Ill
Tex
Mich
Fla
Mass
Ind
NC
Ga
Minn
Wash
Colo
Neb

Chart 2.1.3

WOMEN IN PRISONS
(in hundreds)

(1975)



For the purposes of this discussion, we are primarily concerned with the actual size of prisons and jails per se. Chart 2.1.3 shows the prisons in descending order by size of the female population. The prisons for women in our study ranged in capacity from the small Property Offenders Program in Minnesota for 16 women to the largest capacity prison for 952 women in California.

Capacity figures supplied by institutions were not always based on the same concept. Some institutions counted only living quarters capacity; others counted all bed space, including isolation cells and infirmary beds. The flexibility required in an institution when the count suddenly increases makes the latter definition more realistic than it seems at first glance. At the time of our study all prisons were at or below capacity except Florida which was filled above capacity. (Table 2.1.1).[1] Almost all of the other prisons were filled at two-thirds to three-fourths of their reported capacity.[2] No capacity figure for Georgia was available. There were many unused areas in that barn-like edifice, but beds were crowded together in the dormitories with little space in between.

Jail capacity for women ranged from 22 in Douglas County Jail (Nebraska) to 979 for Sybil Brand Institute in Los Angeles, California. (Table 2.1.2) The second largest jail is Rikers Island in New York (capacity - 679). Of the other jails for which data on capacity for females only were available, 13 had capacities up to 100 women; 6 more had capacities up to 150; and 2 more had capacities up to 270. Jail capacity usually exceeded the number incarcerated, often by a substantial margin.

The actual number of inmates in jail at the time of our sampling ranged from one in the Dupage County Jail (Illinois) to 740 in Sybil Brand Institute (Los Angeles County, California). Chart 2.1.4 depicts the size of jails in our study. Nearly two-thirds of the jails (27) had fewer than 40 women incarcerated, despite the fact that our study focused on the most populous counties.

Capacity of community-based programs ranged from 8 women to 140 persons in a co-correctional facility. Actual female population varied from one woman in Stepping Stones (Colorado) to 62 women in the Georgia Work-Release Center. Of the 36 programs, 23 had less than 10 women in residence, 10 programs had between 10 and 24 women, and 3 had 25 or more women residents.

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[1] For developments over the past year, see Epilogue, p. 203.

[2] According to the warden of the Texas prison, the women's unit was built for 485 inmates; however, the capacity figure reported at the time of the study was 709.

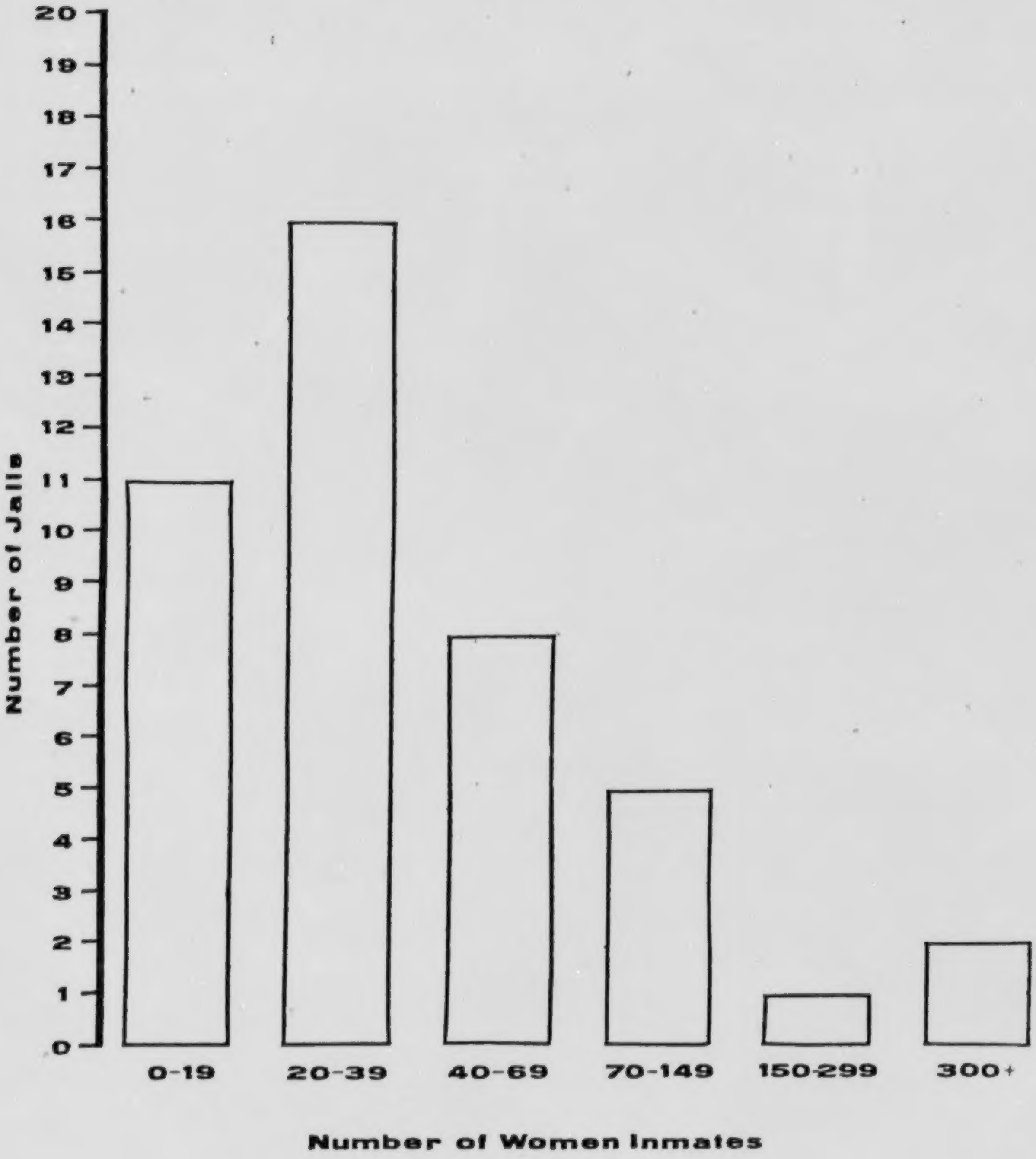
Table 2.1.1 Prison Capacity and Population, Staffing & Costs

	Capacity of Institution	Custody Staff	Total Staff	Actual number of inmates	Staff: Inmate Ratio	Cost per Inmate
California	952	170	311	752	1:2.4	9,300
Texas	709	95	100	662	1:6.6	1,675
Florida	500	96	188	519	1:2.8	5,720
North Carolina	500	83	120	420	1:3.5	3,665
Georgia	NA	46	58	377	1:6.5	2,920
New York	410	195	344	365	1:1.1	15,900
Michigan	400	NA	66	308	1:4.7	NA
Washington	178	59	115	150	1:1.3	14,428
Illinois - Dwight	200	84	144	146	1:1.0	12,000
Massachusetts	168	70	130	139	1:1.1	12,850
Indiana	145	44	85	89	1:1.0	6,406
Illinois - Vienna	634	176	263	453	1:1.7	9,890
Colorado	90	30	36	80	1:2.2	6,200
Nebraska	72	20	40	53	1:1.3	7,483
Minnesota	70	19	42	39	1:0.9	20,281
Minnesota POPS	16	5	10	15	1:1.5	NA

Table 2.1.2 Major Jail Capacity and Population, Staffing & Costs

	Capacity of Institution	Custody Staff	Total Staff	Actual number of inmates	Staff: Inmate Ratio	Cost per Inmate
Sybil Brand	979	183	239	740	1:3.1	6,059
Rikers	679	243	292	373	1:1.3	8,545
Cook County	NA	NA	NA	160	NA	NA
Harris	135	11	11	133	1:12.1	2,399
Dallas	227	13	15	124	1:8.3	3,103
Dade	114	44	51	115	1:2.6	6,000

Chart 2.1.4 Population Distribution in Jails



A final note on capacity: those who oppose new construction in favor of alternatives to incarceration often express the fear that once beds are available, they will be filled. Our data on capacity do not support this assumption, nor do updated figures which indicate that institutional populations may increase, at least temporarily, and result in overcrowding. (See Epilogue for institutional update.)

DESIGN OF PRISONS

There are essentially four different types of design for women's prisons: the complex, the campus, single building, and cottage.

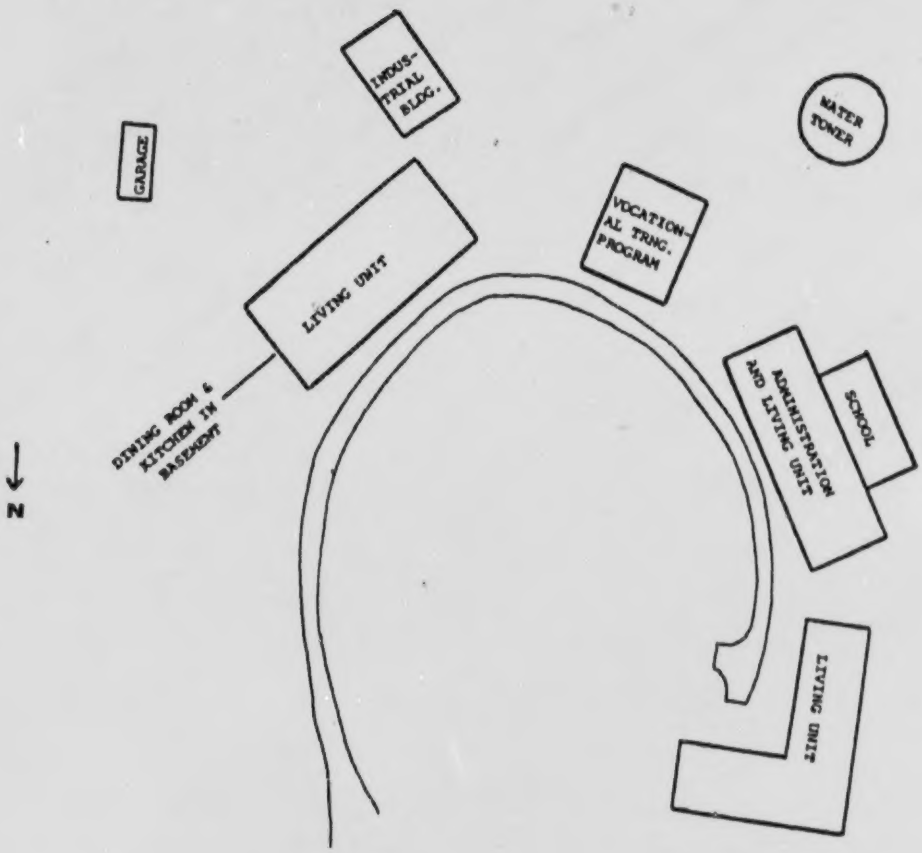
The complex is a design consisting of several buildings, typically clustered around a central administration building. (Diagram 1.) Buildings may include living areas, dining halls, vocational training shops or classrooms. Typically, each building has one or more separate functions. Four of the prisons in our sample had this design: Goree Unit (Texas), Bedford Hills (New York), Minnesota Correctional Institution for Women, and Nebraska State Center for Women. All of these prisons were originally built between 1880 and 1923.

The single building design is just that: one major building housing all functions of the prison. (Diagram 2.) Both Georgia Rehabilitation Center for Women and Colorado Women's Correctional Institution are of this design. Georgia's prison was built in 1928.

The campus design is quite similar to that of a college campus. (Diagram 3.) It generally contains a group of buildings, each with a separate function, set within geographically large areas with grass and trees and affords areas for inmates to move about among these grassy areas. Six of the prisons in our sample were of this design: Vienna Correctional Center (Illinois), Purdy Treatment Center for Women (Washington), California Institution for Women, Florida Correctional Institution, North Carolina Correctional Center for Women, and Massachusetts Correctional Institution (Framingham). These institutions were built between 1877 and 1970.

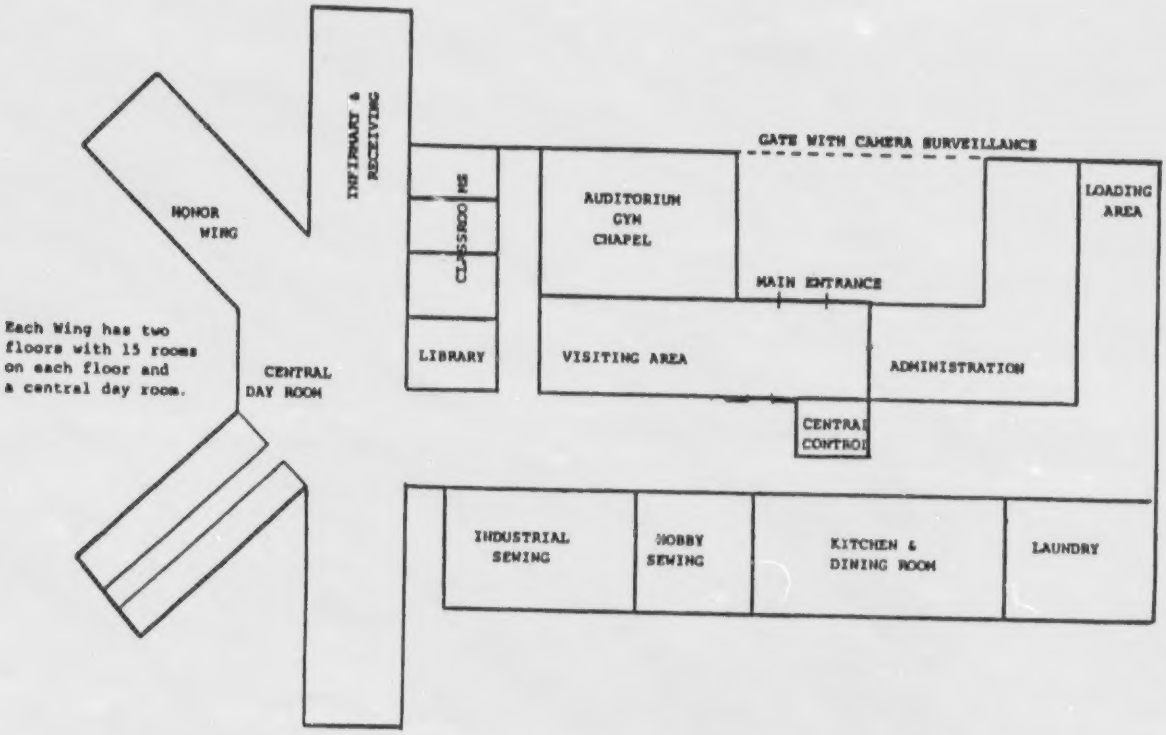
The cottage design consists generally of small buildings which resemble multi-family homes. Each cottage is designed to be self-sufficient and contains individual rooms, as well as kitchen facilities. This design is intended to replicate, to the extent possible, a homey atmosphere. Detroit House of Corrections, built in 1927, is in the cottage design.

Diagram 1.


GARAGE
INDUS-
TRIAL
BLDG.
WATER
TOWER
LIVING UNIT
VOCATION-
AL TRNG.
PROGRAM
DINING ROOM &
KITCHEN IN
BASEMENT
ADMINISTRATION
AND LIVING UNIT
SCHOOL
LIVING UNIT
N

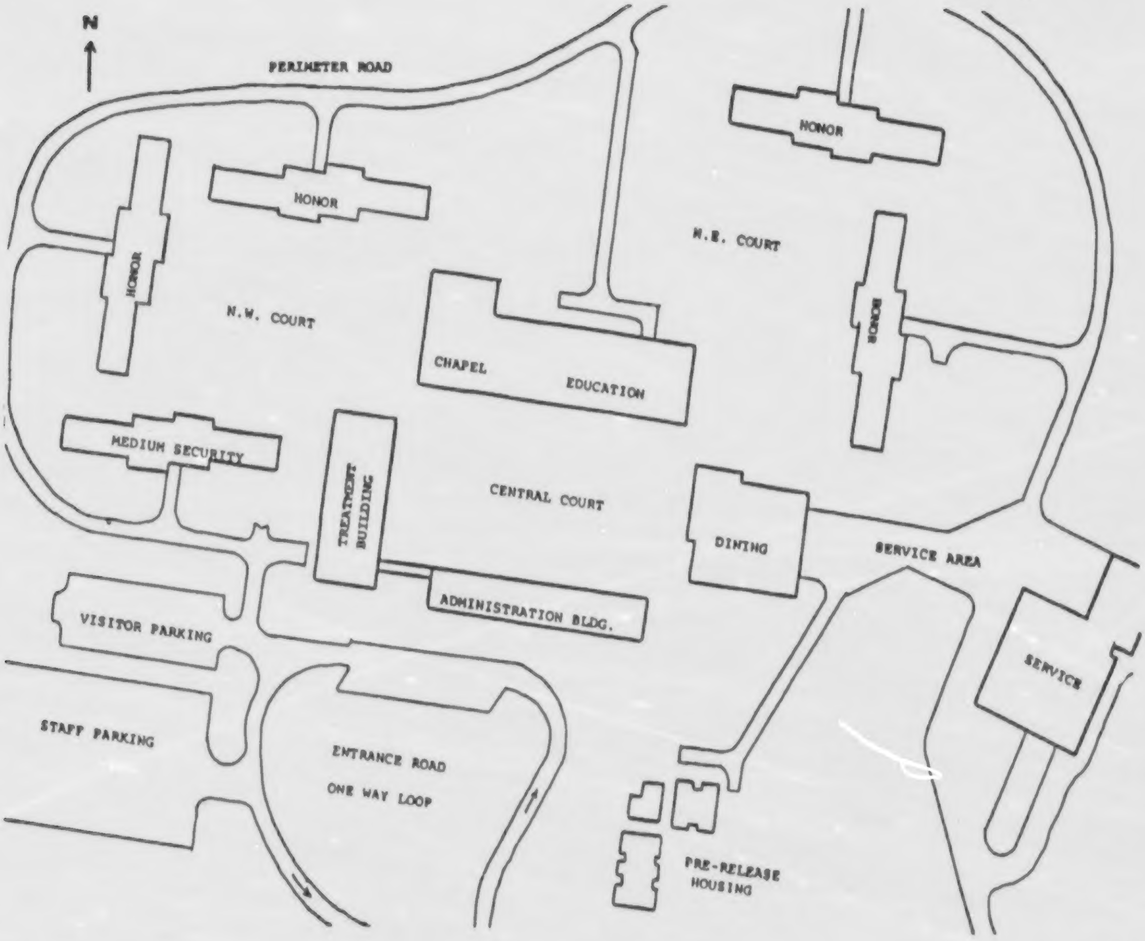
Complex of Buildings
Nebraska Center for Women

Diagram 2.


INFIRMARY & RECEIVING
HONOR WING
CLASSROOMS
GATE WITH CAMERA SURVEILLANCE
AUDITORIUM GYM CHAPEL
LOADING AREA
MAIN ENTRANCE
Each Wing has two floors with 15 rooms on each floor and a central day room.
CENTRAL DAY ROOM
LIBRARY
VISITING AREA
ADMINISTRATION
CENTRAL CONTROL
INDUSTRIAL SEWING
HOBBY SEWING
KITCHEN & DINING ROOM
LAUNDRY

Single Building Design
Colorado Institution for Women

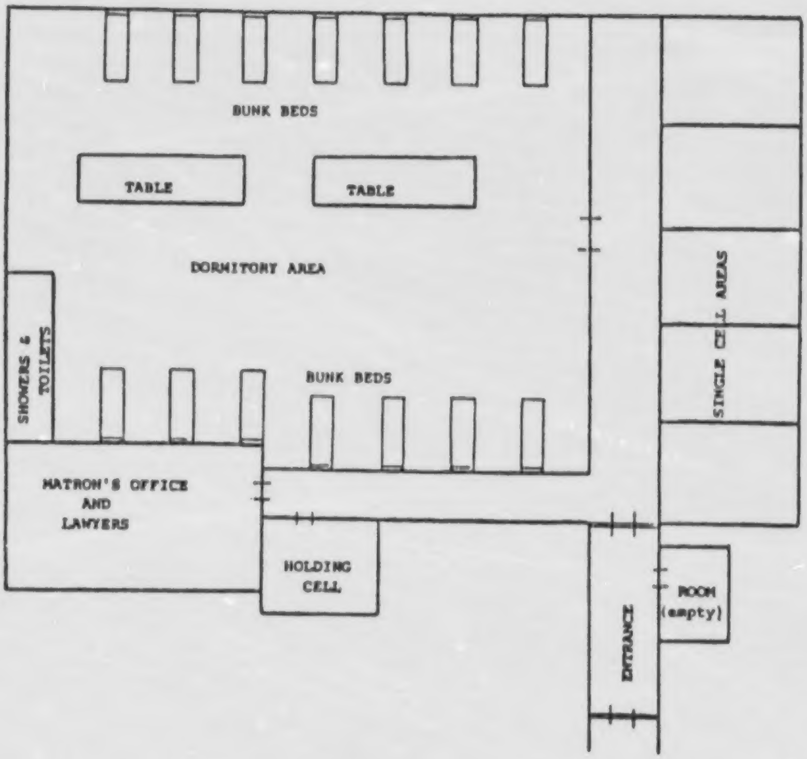
Diagram 3.


N
PERIMETER ROAD
HONOR
HONOR
HONOR
HONOR
N.E. COURT
N.W. COURT
CHAPEL
EDUCATION
MEDIUM SECURITY
TREATMENT BUILDING
CENTRAL COURT
DINING
SERVICE AREA
ADMINISTRATION BLDG.
SERVICE
VISITOR PARKING
STAFF PARKING
ENTRANCE ROAD
ONE WAY LOOP
PRE-RELEASE HOUSING

Campus Design

Purdy Treatment Center, Washington

Diagram 4.


BUNK BEDS
TABLE
TABLE
DORMITORY AREA
SHOWERS & TOILETS
BUNK BEDS
SINGLE CELL AREAS
MATRON'S OFFICE AND LAWYERS
HOLDING CELL
ROOM (empty)
ENTRANCE

Small Jail Section for Women

Dekalb County, Georgia

Some of the institutions in our sample had designs which are variations of the above four basic designs. Minnesota's Property Offender Program (POPS) is a cottage within a complex. Inidana Women's Prison is a campus with cottages built in 1873. Finally, Dwight Correctional Institution (Illinois) is a complex with cottages built in 1930 with recent additions, including a dining hall and a male living unit.

Almost two-thirds of the jails (29 of 41) were either part of, or one floor of a single building (generally within a jail for both men and women). (Diagram 4.) Ten women's jails were separate buildings within a correctional complex which included units for men: Rikers Island, Erie County Penitentiary, and Westchester County in New York; Cook County in Illinois; Orange, Sacramento, Santa Clara, San Francisco, San Joaquin and Alameda County jails in California.

Sybil Brand Institute (Los Angeles County) was the largest correctional institution for women in the nation and the only women's jail operated as a totally separate facility.

The separate building design, in contrast to a section for women in a men's jail, usually provided or could potentially provide more access to the out-of-doors and more space for both living quarters and program activities.

The design of community-based programs varied considerably, but the majority had been large residences with the usual arrangement of living and sleeping quarters.

SECURITY

Basic levels of security in prisons conform to the traditional categories of minimum, medium and maximum. Distinctions between these levels concern degree of inmate surveillance, number of body counts, room searches, architectural design (including barriers at the perimeter) and inmate freedom of movement.

Only one of the prisons in our sample (Goree Unit, Texas) was officially classified as maximum security. Five institutions were classified as minimum security: Massachusetts, Illinois (Vienna), Washington, Minnesota, and Minnesota POPS. The other ten were classified medium security.

Of the 41 jails in our sample, 27 were constructed to provide maximum security; 11 were medium security; 1 had areas for both medium and maximum; and 2 had areas for minimum, medium, and maximum security.

PHYSICAL ADEQUACY

Our preliminary visits to prisons and jails had led us to hypothesize that the physical adequacy of a building would have impact on the institutional environment and on programs. It appeared that in extremely limited facilities there were concomitant limitations on the range of available activities. The main dimensions governing physical adequacy were space and condition.

Space

At one end of the space continuum was the campus-like prison (Diagram 3.) and at the other, the small women's section of a jail (Diagram 4.), which will be referred to simply as "small jail," regardless of the total size of the jail when men are included. As the diagrams indicate, the campus is designed to provide separate buildings for specific programs, specialized living units and outdoor space; the small jail is usually limited to a multi-bed housing unit, where all activities must occur, including dining, recreation, education, etc. In the section on programs and services, it will become clear that space, indeed, proscribes program activities. Where space is designated for a program, such a program is likely to be more fully operational.

Condition

The condition of physical plants varied on a continuum from very poor to excellent. The very poor institutions were poorly lit, barely furnished, noisy, and in need of repair; the excellent ones were well-lighted, furnished with chest, desk, and chair; quiet, and well-maintained. Conditions ranged, for example, from bare cells and dripping plumbing in the Detroit House of Corrections to apartment style units for honor inmates at Purdy (Washington). Usually there appeared to be a level of consistency in the maintenance of an institution, although some sections, especially newer buildings, or isolation units, might vary from the norm. Framingham (Massachusetts) was a study in contrasts - a monolithic old structure used for administration and some programs (including a temperature-controlled data processing area remodeled by male inmates); behind the old prison were new buildings for living units, an infirmary, etc., in prime condition.

Privacy

Another aspect of physical adequacy relates not directly to programs but to the inmate's need for privacy. Arditi notes:

> The interiors of women's prisons also reflect the societal judgment that female inmates require more privacy and individuality... Women's sleeping quarters are usually private rooms rather than multi-bed barracks or multi-tiered cell blocks.[1]

The majority of the prisons (12 out of 16) housed most of the women in individual cells; in 3 of the large prisons, however, most of the women lived in dormitories (Georgia, North Carolina and Florida), while in Texas the women were about evenly divided between double cells and dormitories. Where dormitories existed, more private quarters were usually reserved for honor inmates, inmates with early morning work assignments, or inmates under disciplinary action.

In jails, the reverse was true. Only 9 of 57 jails used individual cells as the primary housing unit, including Rikers Island (New York) and Cook County (Illinois) - two large jails which resemble prisons on many variables.

Community-based programs were more likely to have double or multiple occupancy, 26 of 36 programs having such arrangements.

Sanitary facilities were also related to the type of living quarters. Newer individual rooms were usually equipped with sinks and toilets, providing a semblance of privacy; dormitories often had adjoining "rest-room" type facilites, while the multiple cells, most common in jails, usually had open facilities within the cell area.

Woman's assumed need for privacy is often not a primary consideration in correctional settings.

Physical Adequacy Index

In order to capsulize the available space and prevailing conditions in each institution, we developed a series of items on the Observation Schedule which, in combination, measured the space and condition of each facility. These items were scored and combined to make the Physical Adequacy Index.[1] On this index, low scores indicate high adequacy. In prisons, Physical Adequacy scores ranged from a poor score of 53 in Georgia to an optimal score of 25 in Purdy (Washington), with an average score of 33. Jails had approximately the same range, from 53 in Douglas County (Nebraska) to 26 in Rikers Island (New York). However, the average score was 40, indicating, as expected, that jails, as a group, had poorer conditions than prisons. In community-based programs the range was narrower, from 24 to 36, and the average score was 31. Community-based programs showed less variation from the mean, so that as a group, they were most adequate in terms of physical facility, followed by prisons and lastly jails.

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[1] Arditi, *op. cit.*, p. 20.

SUMMARY

One of the problems of attempting to describe the location of an institution in terms of distance is the concept that distance is not absolute. Many prisons in our sample were virtually isolated when they were built, but urban and suburban development and improvement in highways have brought residential communities and services closer to some of these formerly remote areas. However, remoteness in terms of families is another matter. Prison inmates come from all over the state, although most come from metropolitan areas. The combination of physical remoteness and lack of adequate public transportation means that, in almost all prisons, access to family and other ties in the home community is moderately or severely difficult. This was not generally the case with jails, which were typically located in metropolitan areas which made access to families easier. Location of community-based facilities generally afforded easy access to families.

Capacity of institutions was generally directly related to incarceration rates in a jurisdiction. Capacity of prisons in our sample ranged from 16 for the Minnesota POPS Program to 952 for California's prison. Jail capacity for women ranged from 22 in Douglas County Jail (Nebraska) to 979 for Sybil Brand Institute in Los Angeles, California. Our data on capacity did *not* support the assumption that availability of beds will result in their being filled.

Only one of the prisons in our sample (Goree Unit, Texas) was officially classified as maximum security, whereas 27 of the 41 jails in our sample were classified maximum security.

Physical adequacy of institutions generally varied according to space and condition. A Physical Adequacy Index was developed to assess all institutions. Scores on this index indicated that community-based programs were the most adequate, followed by prisons and jails, respectively.

[1] For details of scoring methods, see Appendix A, p. 243.

NORMALIZATION

In addition to its actual physical dimensions and state of repair, an institution is a living-working environment in which staff and inmates interact with each other and with the external circumstances in which they find themselves. It is easy to sense the difference in atmospheres of institutions, whether they are homes, banks, universities, or prisons. Institutional climates may range from bare and arid to rich and lush, with the normal expectation somewhere in between.

On the Observation Schedule, we addressed some specific manifestations of normalcy in both institutional appearance and interpersonal relations. The Normalization Index measures the variation of an inmate's immediate environment from a strictly institutional (penal) baseline to one that more closely resembles the norm in the outside world.[1] The items were scored and combined for a total Normalization Index.[2] On this index, a low score indicates a high degree of normalization.

Normalization scores in prisons ranged from 7 in the Minnesota prison to 13 in the southern prisons and the Detroit House of Corrections. The prison average was 11. The jail average was 14, ranging from 8 in Cook County (Illinois) to 16 in San Francisco County (San Bruno Jail), California. As would be expected, community-based programs were the most normalized with an average score of 7 and a range of 5 to 10.

AUTONOMY

From outward appearances of normalization, we moved to the question of inmate autonomy. The Autonomy Index measures the number of concerns in every day life over which the inmate maintains control, from eating and sleeping to manner of dress and personal possessions.[3] The higher the score, the more autonomous were the inmates in an institution.

We assumed that high control institutions would have low autonomy scores; jails, therefore, would have the lowest scores and community-based programs, the highest.

[1] See William G. Nagel, The New Red Barn in which he describes in detail a wide range of institutional environments and discusses what he considers to be important variables.

[2] For details of the scoring method, see Appendix A, p. 245.

[3] For details of the scoring method, see Appendix A, p. 246.

Autonomy scores in prisons ranged from a low of 8 in Florida to a high of 19 in Massachusetts and Purdy (Washington), with an average score of 14 for all prisons. In jails, the average autonomy score fell to 5, with a range from 1 in several small jails to a high of 14 in Cook County (Illinois). Community-based programs resembled prisons on this dimension with an average score of 14 and a range from 5 to 18. Community-based programs provided less autonomy than we had expected.

COMMUNICATION

The Communication Index measures the amount of freedom an institution permits with respect to in-coming and out-going mail, number and length of visits, visiting procedures, inmate government, etc. The Index was constructed from information from administrators on visiting rules, mail regulations, and inmate channels of communication.[1] A high score indicates a high degree of communication. These data were not collected for community-based programs. In prisons the communication score ranged from 8 in New York to 17 in Massachusetts with an average score of 12. The communication score in jails averaged 10, with a range of 6 to 13.

INTERRELATIONSHIPS

The Physical Adequacy Index was correlated with the Normalization Index in prisons (r = .721) and jails (r = .707). In community-based programs, however, the relationship faded (r = .415), partly as a result of the smaller variation found on both of these dimensions in the community-based programs. In other words, community-based programs were a relatively homogeneous groups, with a narrow range of scores. Chart 2.2.1 depicts the relationship between Physical Adequacy and Normalization as well as the relative placement of the three types of institutions on the indices. Jails were the least adequate in space and condition and the least normalized, prisons ranked next, and community-based programs far surpassed the other two types.

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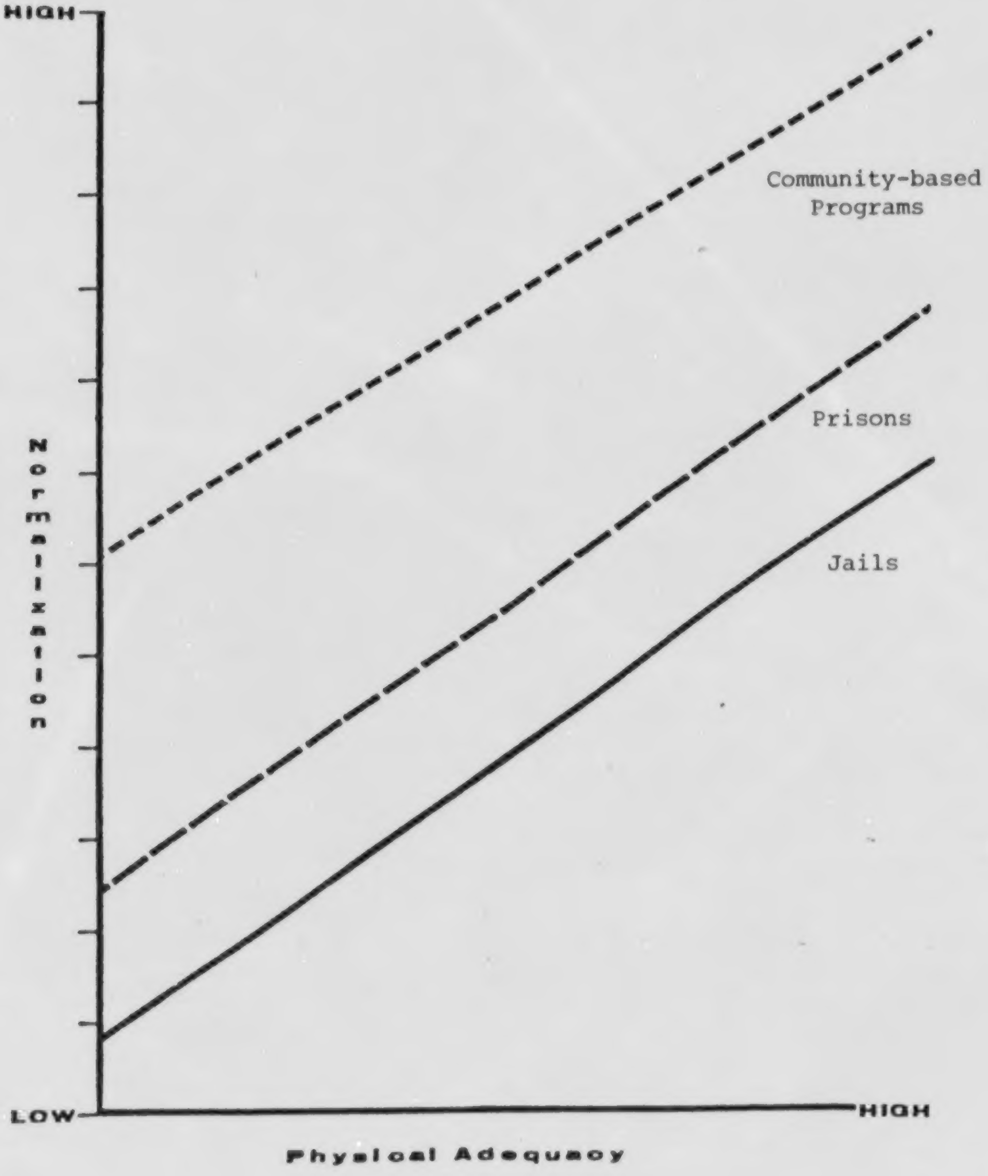
[1] For details of the scoring methods, see Appendix A, p. 247.

Chart 2.2.1 Relationship Between Physical Adequacy and Normalization of Prisons, Jails and Community-based Programs



In prisons the Normalization Index was also correlated with the Autonomy Index (r = -.673). (A negative relationship resulted because of the different scoring patterns; a low number score on Normalization and a high number score on Autonomy were conceptually in the same direction.) In jails and community-based programs, the correlation of these indices declined: r = -.491 for jails and r = -.438 for community-based programs. Again, this reflects, in part, the lack of variation on Normalization among the institutions in each of these groups. Chart 2.2.2 was graphed on a semi-logarithmic scale because of the exponential nature of the curves. There was not a strict linear relationship between Normalization and Autonomy; instead Normalization had to increase substantially to effect an increase in Autonomy.

In both jails and community-based programs the ranges on Normalization were very narrow, with jails concentrated in the lower left quadrant and community-based programs in the upper right quadrant. Prison scores on both dimensions were more broadly distributed. The three types of institutions appear on the graph in the expected direction, moving higher on both dimensions from jails to prisons to community-based programs.

As expected, the Communication Index correlated with the Autonomy Index (r = .653) for prisons. For jails, however, there was absolutely no correlation between these two indices. One reason for this might be that rules and regulations of this type may apply to the entire jail and, therefore, not reflect the policy or correctional philosophy of the women's unit.

It should be noted, that certain jails scored higher on all indices than some prisons and certain prisons scored higher than some community-based programs on Physical Adequacy and Normalization. Specifically, Cook County Jail (Illinois) and Rikers Island (New York) resembled prisons more than they resembled other jails.

For several reasons it is understandable that prisons are more physically adequate, more normalized, and provide more inmate autonomy than jails. Since women in prisons serve longer terms, their living conditions have a greater impact on them over an extended period of time. As we shall see in the section on programs, the prison is often a microcosm of the real world. The jail, on the other hand, is a relatively transient place, where 40% to 60% of the women come and go in a matter of days or weeks. In addition, funding for corrections is usually greater at the state level compared to local allocations.

Chart 2.2.2 Relationship Between Normalization and Autonomy in Prisons, Jails and Community-based Programs

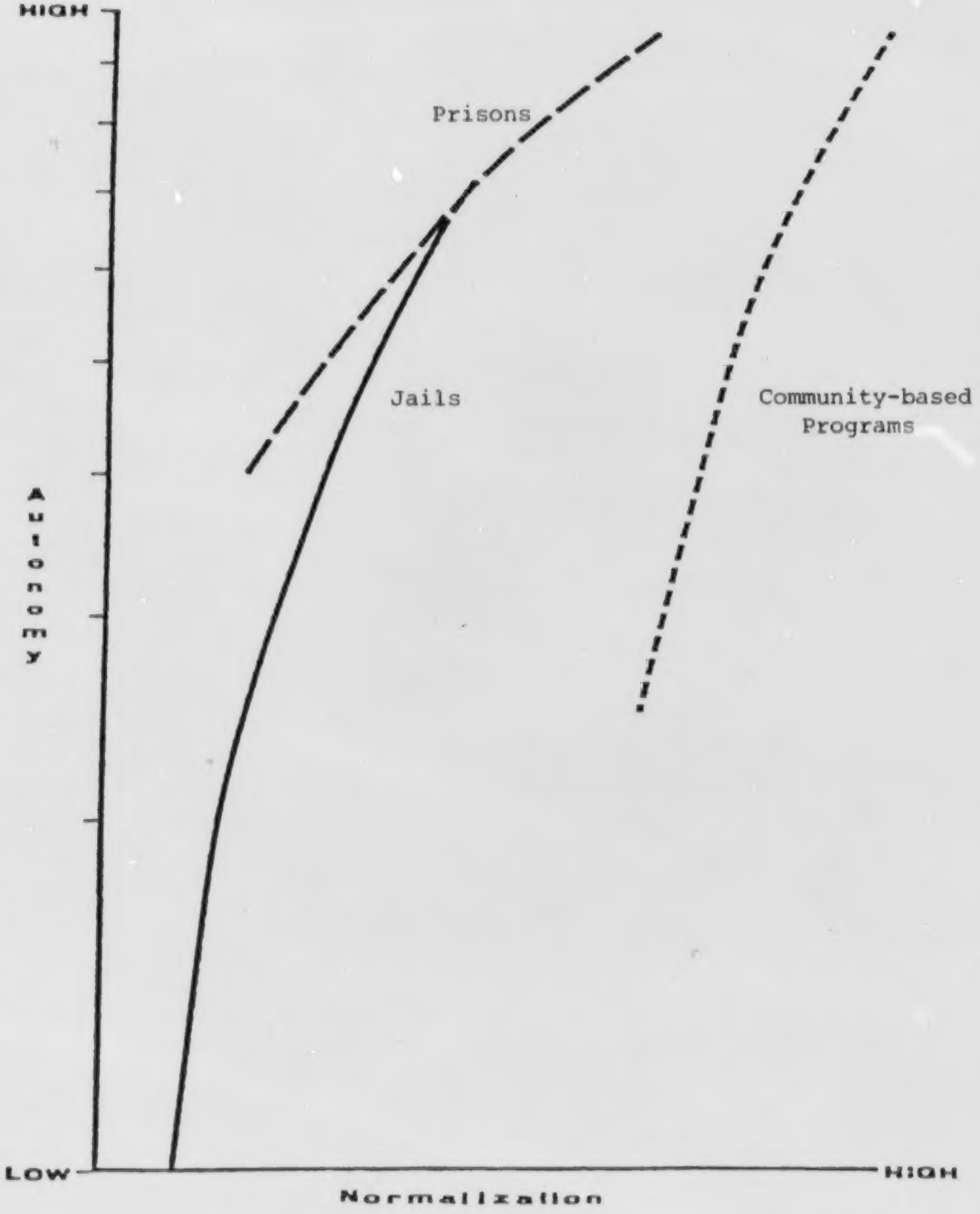


Table 2.2.1 shows the prisons and high-scoring jails listed in rank order on three interrelated variables, which measure the physical and social environment of the institution.

Table 2.2.1 Institutions Ranked by Physical Adequacy, Normalization and Autonomy

PRISONS

	Physical Adequacy	Normalization	Autonomy
Washington	H	VH	VH
Illinois - Vienna	H	VH	VH
Minnesota	A	VH	H
Minnesota POPS	A	H	H
Colorado	A	H	A
Nebraska	A	H	A
Massachusetts	A	A	VH
Illinois - Dwight	A	A	H
California	A	A	H
New York	A	L	A
Florida	A	L	A
Texas	A	L	L
Indiana	L	A	L
Georgia	L	L	A
Michigan	L	L	L
North Carolina	L	L	L

JAILS*

	Physical Adequacy	Normalization	Autonomy
Cook County	VH	VH	VH
Rikers	VH	H	VH
Sacramento	H	H	H
Dallas	A	H	H
Dade	A	H	H
Spokane	A	H	H
Westchester	H	H	L
Dupage	H	A	L
Fulton	L	A	H
Marion	A	H	L
Kent	A	H	L

VH = Very High
H = High
A = Average
L = Low

*All other jails scored low on two or all three indices.

Some of the jails in our study are more properly called divisions or units of local departments of corrections. Unlike most jails, they are not operated by the sheriff. Four of the 5 facilities operated by local departments of corrections scored high on the indices: Cook County (Illinois); Dade County (Florida); Rikers Island and Westchester County (New York). Divisions of corrections are primarily in the business of running institutions, while sheriff's departments usually have several different functions including patrol, court security, and jail operation.

Although we had hypothesized that tight external security should permit more inmate freedom within the institution, we did not find any consistent relationship between institutional security and inmate autonomy. In some of the most secure institutions, inmates had no freedom; in some of the least secure places inmates had the highest degree of autonomy, but no definite trends were evident.

SUMMARY

The social environment of the institutions and community-based programs in our sample was measured according to a Normalization Index (which measures the variation of an inmate's immediate environment from a strictly institutional baseline to one that more closely resembles the norm in the outside world) and an Autonomy Index (which measures the inmate's control over various aspects of day-to-day existence). Community-based programs were found to be most normalized, followed by prisons and jails, respectively. Prisons and community-based programs were found to offer the same level of autonomy, followed by jails. Community-based programs provided less autonomy than we had expected.

Examination of the interrelationship between normalization and autonomy revealed that normalization has to increase substantially to effect an increase in autonomy.

A Communication Index was used to measure the degree of freedom that inmates have in communication with the outside world. Prisons were found to offer a slightly higher degree of communication than jails, but this might be offset by the distance between prisoners and their friends and families. In summary, prisons were found to be more physically adequate and more normalized and to provide more inmate autonomy than jails.

ADMINISTRATIVE ASPECTS

In an effort to determine the ways in which specific aspects of institutional management influence the atmosphere, program emphasis and overall direction of an institution, we examined several aspects such as management turnover; staff/ inmate ratio; manager's philosophy concerning the goals of his or her institution, perspectives concerning the female inmate's special needs, views concerning involvement of community groups; and disciplinary systems.

MANAGEMENT TURNOVER

In total, from March 1975 to March 1976 the superintendent was replaced in eight of the 14 major state prisons for women. In several of these prisons three or four persons occupied the warden's office during a one year period. The revolving door concept, often applied to inmates, acquires a new context when applied to prison administrators. The need to have someone in control may be so paramount that other important considerations may be overlooked by prison officials. Getting someone through the door quickly may be counterbalanced by an equally fast exit. Staff morale, inmate uncertainty, and program operation are likely to suffer under such unstable circumstances. Of the 6 prisons that did not change administrators, three had had a stable administration for some time the other three had had frequent changes prior to the past year.

Another feature of the high turnover among superintendents was that most of the replacements came from outside of the women's prison, either men from other prisons or women from out of state. Apparently, no one from within the staff of these institutions had been groomed for promotion. If indeed a "shake-up" or a new direction was desired, the outside appointments may have been a means of change. However, our impressions suggest that some correctional systems utilize crisis intervention methods rather than planning when such major decisions need to be made regarding the usually docile, un-noticed women's prison.

INSTITUTIONAL GOALS

In an effort to determine the personal goals of administrators concerning corrections and the extent to which this philosophical stance might influence their management style, program direction, and approach to dealing with the offender, we asked all administrators of the jails and prisons to express their institutional goals. In response, over one-third (36%) of the prison administrators indicated that the goal of their institution was to rehabilitate the individual offender. In fact, 61% of all responses from prison administrators expressed their orientation towards treatment, rehabilitation or reintegration of the offender by increasing the inmate's skills An additional 13% of all responses expressed a related orientation towards preparing the inmate for return to the community. Only 13% of all responses indicated that a major goal was custody; this was always in addition to the goal of rehabilitation. An additional 13% of the responses expressed an orientation toward maintaining a humane atmosphere in the prison. Thus, it appears that most prison administrators espouse a treatment orientation.

Table 2.3.1 Institutional Goals as Reported by Prison and Jail Administrators

	INSTITUTIONAL GOALS			
	Prisons (N=16)		Jails (N=41)	
GOALS MENTIONED	N	%	N	%
Community orientation	4	13	3	5
Reintegration into society	5	16	4	7
Rehabilitation thru programs	3	9	7	12
Rehabilitation - individual	11	36	12	21
Humane atmosphere	4	13	10	18
Custody	4	13	20	36
Total Responses	31	100%	56	100%

In five of the seven institutions where the administrator was oriented toward the inmate's return to the community, scores on Autonomy were high or very high. Conversely, all four of the institutions espousing custody as a major goal had low Normalization and low or average Autonomy scores.[1]

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[1] For a discussion of the Normalization and Autonomy Indices, see pp. 29-35.

In contrast, over one-third (36%) of all responses from jail administrators expressed a primary orientation toward custody. An additional 18% of all jail responses were directed toward maintaining a humane atmosphere in the jail. Forty percent of all responses were oriented towards treatment, rehabilitation, or reintegration of the inmate into society through improvement of the inmate's skills. The reason most often given for the lack of programs and rehabilitative efforts in jails is the relatively short stay of most inmates -- from several days to a few months.

In community-based programs almost all of the administrators expressed strong philosophical positions in favor of reintegration of the offender into the community.

SPECIAL NEEDS OF FEMALE OFFENDERS

In keeping with the prison administrators' primary philosophical orientation towards treatment, rehabilitation and, to a lesser extent, reintegration into society, most administrators indicated that the special needs of female offenders concern their children and family and their emotional problems and related low self-esteem. Although several prison administrators expressed concern with the inmate's special needs for medical services and improved skills training leading to employability, less emphasis was placed on these concerns. In general, most of the following special needs of female inmates identified by prison administrators emphasized views concerning the inmate's personal needs for change and improvement primarily as they relate to her traditional role as mother and homemaker:

PRISON ADMINISTRATORS' VIEWS ON INMATES' SPECIAL NEEDS

- The inmate's social role in society is homemaking; she needs a home-like setting, even in prison (this is why women inmates turn to homosexuality); she needs stronger ties to family and better relationships with her children; she needs to learn how to care for her children.
- Being "head of household" is a big problem for many women inmates.
- Women inmates are unmotivated; they need more counseling and positive social involvement; they need to acquire problem-solving skills; women inmates have low self-esteem because of societal stigma.

- Women have difficulty dealing with institutionalization.
- Women inmates need to learn to stand alone (many are looking for knights in shining armor).
- They need more medical help (because they're women).
- The women have few skills; they have employability problems.

Most of the program emphasis in prisons reflected administrators' views that the inmates need to strengthen their ability to perform in traditional supportive roles as mother and homemaker, rather than as worker. In contrast, managers of most community-based programs adhered to the viewpoint that imparting survival skills and a sense of individual responsibility is the key to client success and, therefore, this is the offender's need.

Prison administrators' expressed attitudes towards involvement of outside agencies in prison programs and services indicated conflict between the value and advantage of more flexible, creative programs, less cost and contact with the community versus the need to maintain security and control and the perceived disruptive nature of programs run by citizens viewed as naive, gullible and requiring supervision and time commitments on the part of correctional staff.

STAFFING AND COSTS

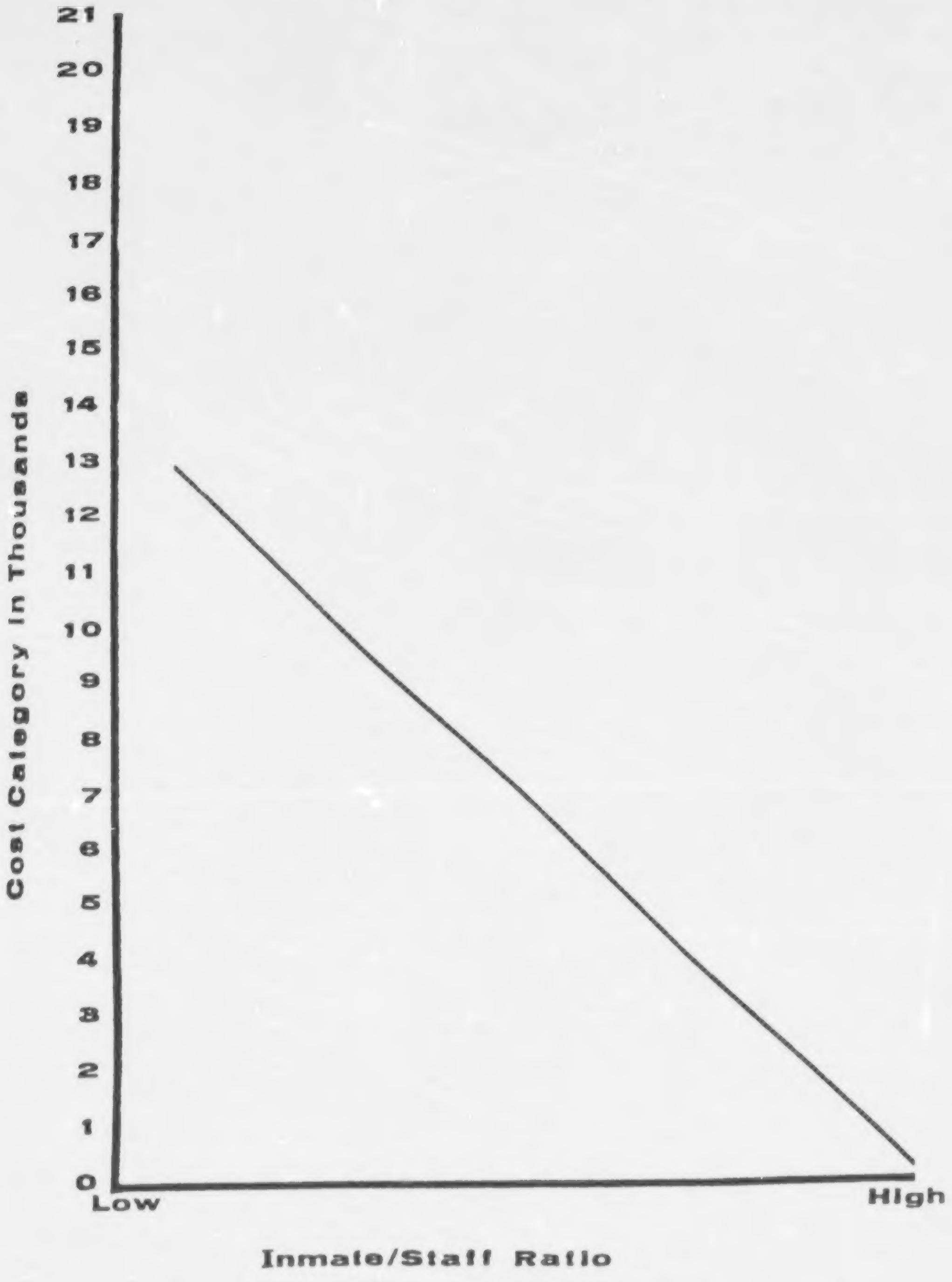
In prisons, inmate/staff ratios[1] ranged from 0.70 to 0.93 inmates per each full-time staff member in Dwight Correctional Institution (Illinois) and Minnesota's prison, respectively, to 6.62 and 6.5 inmates per full-time staff member in Goree Unit (Texas) and Georgia's Rehabilitation Center. The average inmate/staff ratio in prisons was 2.4 inmates per full-time staff member.

In jails, inmate/staff ratios ranged from 0.5 inmates per full-time staff member in the Dupage County Jail (Illinois) to 12.1 inmates per full-time staff member in Harris County Jail (Texas). Most jails had a ratio of between 2.0 to 3.0 inmates per full-time staff member.

Thus, the average inmate/staff ratio for both prisons and jails was almost the same. However, the range was much smaller for prisons, thereby indicating some tendency for jails to have more inmates per staff member. Interestingly, community-based programs rarely had a ratio of inmates to staff that exceeded 1.5 to 1.

[1] Inmate/staff ratios were based on the number of female inmates in the institution at the time of the study, divided by the number of full-time employees on the women's unit. In co-educational programs where staff worked with both men and women, population figures included men as well as women.

Chart 2.3.1 Relationship of Cost Per Inmate to Inmate/Staff Ratio in Prison



In prisons, cost per inmate per year[1] ranged from $2,920 for Georgia's prison to $20,281 for Minnesota's prison. Jail costs per inmate per year also varied greatly. The range was from $2,399 for Harris County Jail (Texas) to $32,532 for Westchester County Jail (New York). However, most jails had costs well below $10,000 per inmate per year. Community-based program costs ranged from $2,500 to $14,350 per resident per year. The average cost per year for a resident of a halfway house was $6,205. As evidenced in Chart 2.3.1, there is a high negative correlation (r = -.710) between inmate/staff ratios and cost per inmate in prisons. The fewer inmates per staff the higher the cost. When cost data were grouped into five categories, the correlation increased to -.873.

Average time served ranged from one month for most jails to eight months in the Lake County Jail (Indiana) and 12 months in the Dallas County Jail (Texas). In prisons, average time served ranged from ten months in Minnesota's Correctional Institution to 42 months in Dwight Correctional Center (Illinois). Data was available for only 12 prisons. Most prisons had an average time served between 13 and 18 months. Average length of stay in community-based programs was 2 to 6 months.

An interesting sidelight to the data concerning average time served was the responses of prison administrators to questions concerning their views on the impact of the length of time served upon institutional programming. Administrators generally stated that short lengths of time served frequently prevent involvement in programs and long lengths of time served often obviate the impact of programs; skills gained during incarceration may be rusty by the time of release. Clearly differential sentencing of inmates creates obstacles to effective program planning.

DISCIPLINARY SYSTEMS

In an effort to identify patterns in disciplinary systems, we asked each prison and jail to define their minor and major infractions, disciplinary actions for these infractions, and which persons handled disciplinary actions. The data revealed that there was little agreement among institutions concerning whether a specific infraction was major or minor. That is, the same infraction, such as insubordination or contraband was considered a major infraction in one institution and a minor infraction in another institution. In general, however, most institutions listed fighting and contraband and property damage as major infractions. All institutions listed escapes and arson, violence or use of weapons as major infractions. Eight out of ten institutions indicated that homosexual acts were major infractions. Foul language was a minor infraction in 11 out of 14 institutions. Some institutions reported that walking on the grass, rattling doors and yelling, failure to return towels or having torn sheets were considered minor infractions.

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[1] In institutions where figures were available, cost per inmate was based on annual operating costs divided by average daily population.

Disciplinary action for minor infractions varied widely from reprimand to loss of privileges (sometimes up to 30 days) to confinement in cells, or loss of up to 60 days gain time.[1] Action on minor infractions was typically taken either by staff on duty, staff in charge or a committee (sometimes comprised of peers).

Disciplinary action for major infractions typically resulted in loss of privileges and isolation in a cell, frequently for a maximum of 14 days, but in several institutions, for 60 to 90 days. Some institutions reported that a woman would be held for 10 days, then her case would be reviewed each 30 days thereafter. In one institution isolation would be for an indefinite period of time. And finally, certain major infractions might result in prosecution in the courts.

Major infractions in prison were almost always handled by a board which conducts a hearing. In several jails, however, major infractions were handled by the administrator.

SUMMARY

Several aspects of institutional management were examined to determine their influence on the atmosphere, program emphasis and overall direction of an institution. Those aspects examined were: management turnover; staff/inmate ratio; administrator's philosophy concerning the goals of his or her institution, perspectives concerning the female inmate's special needs, views concerning involvement of community groups; and disciplinary systems.

In the one year period of March 1975 to March 1976 the superintendent was replaced in eight of the 14 major state prisons for women. In several prisons, three or four persons occupied the warden's office during a one year period. Thus, the revolving door concept acquires a new context when applied to prison administrators. In several instances, the need to maintain or restore control took precedence over other considerations, thereby creating problems in staff morale, inmate uncertainty, and instability of institutional programs. Only 3 of the 14 major prisons had had a stable administration for some time.

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[1] Terms such as gain time, good time, time credited for good behavior, etc. refer to days or months subtracted from a sentence for good behavior and/or special work duties, as established in the state penal code.

When asked to express the goals of their institution, most prison administrators expressed an orientation toward treatment and rehabilitation and, to a lesser extent, reintegration of the offender into society. In contrast, a significant percentage of jail administrators expressed a primary orientation toward custody, and directors of community-based programs were chiefly concerned with reintegration of offenders into the community.

Most prison administrators' views of the special needs of the woman offender reflected traditional views of the woman's role as mother and homemaker. Their views of the value of community involvement in prison programs reflected conflict between the need for creative citizen-involved programs at low cost and the need to maintain security and control in the face of perceived threats to control by the presence of "naive and gullible" citizens.

Inmate/staff ratios in prisons and jails were similar, on the average, although most jails had a lower proportion of staff to inmates. Community-based programs generally had more full-time staff per resident. Costs varied per institution, although there was some tendency for jails and community-based programs to have lower costs per inmate (resident) per year than prisons.

Examination of disciplinary systems revealed that there was little agreement among institutions concerning whether a specific infraction was major or minor. Disciplinary action for minor infractions varied from reprimand to loss of privileges (sometimes up to 30 days), to confinement in cells, or loss of up to 60 days gain time.

Disciplinary action for major infractions typically resulted in loss of privileges and isolation in a cell, frequently for a maximum of 14 days, but in several institutions for 60 to 90 days. Finally, certain major infractions led to prosection in the courts.

SUMMARY INSTITUTIONAL PROFILE

Although the prisons and jails do not fall into a neat typology on the many variables examined, we have been able to identify two ends of a continuum. The reintegration model which includes a philosophical inclination toward preparing the inmate for return to the community by allowing autonomous behavior in a normalized environment within an adequate physical facility. This model was exemplified by Purdy Treat-Center (Washington), Vienna Correctional Center (Illinois), Minnesota Correctional Institution for Women, and Massachusetts Correctional Institution at Framingham. At the jail level, Cook County (Illinois) and Rikers Island (New York) were at this end of the continuum.

At the other end, which is characterized by a custody orientation, inadequate facilities, bleak surroundings, and little inmate control over her routine, were the majority of jails, the Detroit House of Corrections, and the prisons in North Carolina, Georgia and, to a lesser extent, Indiana and Texas.

The other institutions occupied a middle ground perhaps best described as "mixed."

SECTION III. PROGRAMS AND SERVICES

The institutional variables described in the preceding section provide a conceptual framework for an examination of the various programs and services that are provided in prisons, jails and community-based programs. The size of an institution alone affects programming; such additional factors as the location of the institution, budget constraints and the philosophy of the administrator, contribute to the complexity of providing programs and services to the inmates.

In addition to these variables, certain other aspects of the institutional setting have direct bearing on programs and services. Correctional institutions are, first and foremost, non-voluntary placements for individuals who have been adjudged guilty of violating the law. One does not choose to go to prison or jail; one is committed to such an institution.

The length of stay of the inmate varies according to the inmate's legal status, the sentence imposed by the court, and the behavior of the inmate during the period of incarceration. There is no fixed schedule for the arrival and departure of inmates in institutions and the institutional community operates 24 hours a day, seven days a week.

The institution is responsible for providing custody and the basic requirements for survival: food, clothing and shelter, plus at least minimal emergency medical care. Furthermore, the institution must provide for the safety and protection of both inmates and staff.

It is impossible to reconstruct with any degree of accuracy the order in which many of the programs and services were introduced into a system that began simply with penitence, and progressed slowly to the concept of rehabilitation and most recently to reintegration of the offender. It is apparent, however, that programs and services were introduced into institutions in a somewhat random fashion, most often as additions to what already existed, and generally in response to what was believed to be rehabilitative at the time. Because programs and services are somewhat eclectic, they lack internal consistency, and may even be in conflict with custody and maintenance needs of the institution.

Although there is certainly no agreement among correctional experts about what works and what doesn't, over the years, many people have had some notion about what might work, and what does, in fact, seem to work in the world outside the prison. It is important to note that virtually every program and service that is offered in the institutions has its outside counterpart. It is equally important to understand that these same programs and services have often undergone significant modification to fit the needs of both the population and the institution.

It may be that programs do not "cure" criminals or prevent recidivism; the fact is, programs exist at least in some measure because there is TIME that must be filled.

Even allowing for the fact that perhaps 8 of every 24 hours are spent in sleep, there remain 16 hours of every day that must somehow be dealt with. The institution, like one's home, must be maintained, and whether or not one regards maintenance as a learning experience or a chore, floors need mopping, windows need washing, food must be prepared and served, etc. These functions are generally performed by inmates.

Perhaps the most unique problem in the institution relates to the fact that the 5-day work-week and 2-day weekend that most of us live our lives by has little reality for inmates. But the programs run, for the most part, according to the schedule of the staff who do live in the world outside the walls; programs and services are designed to fit the needs of staff and outside agency schedules.

Thus the programs and services that are provided in correctional institutions operate within a set of constraints that are significantly different from the context in which the same programs and services are offered outside the institution:

1. The institution is a non-voluntary placement.

2. Programs exist within a setting that is viewed by society as primarily punitive.

3. Safety and security of both inmates and staff are an important consideration in operating programs.

4. Scheduling must take into consideration staff availability, the flow of inmates through the system, and the heterogeniety of the population.

Given the complexities of the total institution, it is no wonder that the programs rarely mesh into a single consistent pattern where one could say without question that the overall philosophy or goal of the institution is completely clear. Programs and services are so interconnected and overlapping, that it is somewhat artificial to look at them separately. However, although functions are often indistinct, there are generally clear lines of authority and responsibility in program areas that enable us to label and isolate the major programs and services for descriptive purposes.

Ten (10) program/service components of the institution were selected for study: 1) Intake/Classification, 2) Work Assignments, 3) Education, 4) Recreation, 5) Health Care, 6) Counseling/Treatment, 7) Religious Programs, 8) Work-Release, 9) Food Service, and 10) Use of Volunteers. A structured interview was conducted with the individual designated by the administrator of the institution as having primary responsibility for each program listed above. If no special person was named, the administrator was interviewed.[1]

This method of gathering data has some pitfalls as well as advantages; not infrequently, the information provided by one individual within an institution was inconsistent with the information provided by others. Whenever disparities were noted, clarification was requested from the administrator of the institution; however, the reader will note that some (generally minor) inconsistencies remain.

ORGANIZATION OF THE DATA

The program information that follows has been organized to indicate the flow and overlap of the individual elements. Where appropriate, several elements have been combined. The data on volunteers were too limited for inclusion. Data on the prisons and large jails[2] are presented separately in tables; all other jails are grouped and described in the text. The institutions are listed in the tables in order by size from the largest to smallest on the basis of their female population. Community-based programs are grouped on the basis of their primary program emphasis: Work-Release, Drug/Alcohol and Halfway Houses.

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[1] A sample questionnaire is included in Appendix E, p. 295, to illustrate the basic format used in all program areas.

[2] Those jails having a population of 100 or more female inmates at the time of the study were: Sybil Brand (Los Angeles County, California), Rikers Island (New York), Cook County (Chicago, Illinois), Harris and Dallas Counties (Texas) and Dade County (Miami, Florida).

INTAKE

The intake process is generally the first point of contact between the client and the institution, whether jail or prison. The process includes one or more of the following procedures: booking, orientation and classification.

Booking is essentially an identification procedure during which the suspect (in jails) or the convicted offender (in jails and prisons) is fingerprinted, photographed and at times assigned an identifying number. In addition, the process may include a body search, shower and shampoo, and in some instances spraying with disinfectant and a vaginal search.

Tables 3.1.1 and 3.1.2 show the actual procedures that are done routinely on new inmates in prisons and the large metropolitan jails in the sample. Fingerprinting and photographs are the only procedures that are reported in all institutions. Only Georgia's prison reported not requiring issuance of identification numbers. The Minnesota and Washington prisons and the Dade County Jail's intake procedures were the most limited. Only fingerprinting, photographs, identification numbers and a body search were required. Procedures at Illinois' prison in Vienna were also limited because women were first sent to Dwight for processing.

In all institutions, body search was reported in 75% of the cases; showers in 56%; vaginal searches[1] in 48%; and disinfectant spraying in 39%.

Following the booking process, the most immediate concern was housing for the new inmate. Many institutions maintained a separate unit to which new inmates were assigned for a specified time period. This unit was known by several names, including reception, quarantine, isolation and segregation. The purpose of the unit was to enable staff to assess the inmate according to criteria specified for each particular institution in order to place the woman in the general population.

In the prisons and large jails, this period of quarantine from the general population lasted from less than one week up to five weeks, with the majority of prisons reporting a two or three week time period. Three (3) prisons had no period of isolation; two (2) had an unspecified time period, e.g., "until cleared medically," seven (7) had a 2-3 week time period; and two (2) had a period of 4 or more weeks.

[1] Several institutions indicated that the vaginal search was simply a visual examination of the perineal area for tangible evidence of hidden objects. In a few institutions it was noted that searches were only done on suspected drug users.

Table 3.1.1 Intake Procedures in Prisons

	Finger-printing	Photographs	Numbers	Showers	Hair washing	Spraying (disinfect)	Body search	Vaginal search	Clothing issued		Total Number	
California	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		9	
Texas	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		9	
Florida	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x*	x		9	* visual search
North Carolina	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		9	
Georgia	x	x	-	-	-	x	x	x	x		6	
New York	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		9	
Michigan	x	x	x	x	x	-	x	x	x		8	
Washington	x	x	x	-	-	-	x	-	-		4	
Illinois - Dwight	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		9	
Massachusetts	x	x	x	x	x	-	x	x	x		8	
Indiana	x	x	x	x	x	-	x	-	(x)*		6	* if needed
Illinois - Vienna	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	(x)*		3	* if needed
Colorado	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		9	
Nebraska	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	-	x		8	
Minnesota	x	x	x	-	-	-	x	-	(x)*		4	* if needed

x indicates that the procedure is done
(x) not included in total

Table 3.1.2 Intake Procedures in Major Jails

	Finger-printing	Photographs	Numbers	Showers	Hair washing	Spraying (disinfect)	Body search	Vaginal search	Clothing issued		Total number	
Sybil Brand	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x*	x		8	* visual search only
Rikers	x	x	x	x	x	-	x	x	-		7	
Cook County	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		9	
Harris	x	x	x	-	-	-	x	-	x		5	
Dallas	x	x	x	x	x	-	x	-	x		7	
Dade	x	x	x	-	-	-	x*	-	-		4	* strip search without touching - hair is searched

* indicates that the procedure is done

Only one large jail (Cook County) had a separate unit for isolation; none of the moderate or small jails maintained a separate unit, although holding cells, drunk tanks and hospital beds were frequently used for the first few (8-24) hours, or for those cases where contagious diseases were diagnosed. If an unsentenced woman was not released on her own recognizance or bail within 24 hours, she was given a uniform and assigned to a bed (cell or dormitory). Most, but not all, jails separated unsentenced from sentenced offenders, with unsentenced women generally under closer surveillance.

The most frequently mentioned purposes for isolating new inmates in jails were to check for contagious diseases and/or to observe behavior, especially related to possible drug withdrawal symptoms or intoxication.

In the prisons, the special unit served several functions including orientation and classification.

Orientation programs ranged from an informal process of familiarizing the new inmate with the rules and regulations of the institution, to a highly structured series of lectures and activities dealing with all aspects of the programs and services available in the institution.

Classification can be of two types:

1. general classification, in which inmates are labeled on basic characteristics, such as sex, race, age, criminal justice status (unsentenced or sentenced), security level (because of offense, prior history, or violent behavior), homosexuality, or bizarre activity. This form of classification is most commonly found in jails.

2. formal classification, is a decision-making process involving a team of staff members who, using a variety of information, assess each inmate and plan her institutional program. It should be made clear that classification is not necessarily "treatment oriented," but is often primarily a management tool.

The formal classification process was implemented by a classification committee or diagnostic team usually comprised of one or more administrative staff, program staff, and custody staff. In the Colorado prison, inmates now serve on the committee on a rotating basis. In only a few prisons, such as Florida and Washington, did the inmate being classified actively participate in the process.

The classification committee is generally responsible for developing a program for the inmate shortly after her arrival and for reclassification, either periodically or at the request of the inmate or staff, during her incarceration.

Formal classification was rare in jails for a number of reasons: high turnover of inmates, lack of staff, limited bed space and minimal program opportunities.

All of the prisons except Minnesota POPS but only two jails, Rikers Island and Cook County, used a formal classification process. Some or all of the following procedures were utilized: medical examination, psychological testing, educational achievement testing, intelligence (I.Q.) testing, vocational testing, psychiatric evaluation, and personal interview. In addition, prior criminal justice history was mentioned as a factor affecting classification in several institutions.

Twelve (12) of the sixteen (16) prisons reported using four or more of these procedures for classifying or evaluating inmates for assignment to jobs and/or programs, and/or housing. Two (2) institutions used none of the procedures; two (2) others used only two procedures.

Tables 3.1.3 and 3.1.4 show the activities affected by classification in the prisons and large jails, including programs, housing, jobs, counseling and mobility; however, assignment to work tasks was the most common application of classification.

In the community-based programs, the selection criteria for inclusion in the program came closest to the intake/classification procedures in the prisons and jails. An examination of the selection criteria used in all community-based programs revealed that no programs had formalized eligibility criteria. In the pre-release/work-release programs, satisfactory institutional adjustment was a consideration for selection and placement of a client. Decisions on resident selection typically consisted of exclusion of specific types of offenders, e.g. violent offenders, offenders with severe emotional problems, etc.

Drug programs tended to take only drug users, but clear definitions of the type of drug use or the length of time addicted were not mentioned in any of the interviews. The same was true of alcohol programs.

All of the program administrators indicated that client self-motivation was a prime factor in the success of a client in the program; however, no one used any formal measures to assess motivation at intake.

Table 3.1.3 Reception and Classification in Prisons

	Function of Unit							Activities Affected by Classification						
	Special Reception Unit (Center)	No. of Weeks in Reception Unit	Orientation/ Adjustment	Medical Exam/ Quarantine	Testing	Observe Behavior	Classification	Programs	Jobs	Counseling	Housing	Mobility	Other	
California	Yes	5	-	x	x	-	Yes	-	x	-	x	x	-	
Texas	Yes	◆	x	x	x	-	Yes	x	x	-	x*	-	x**	*when space permits **recreation activities
Florida	Yes	3	x	-	x	-	Yes	x	x	x	x*	x	-	*high security, work assignments
North Carolina	Yes	2-3	x	-	x	-	Yes	x	x	x	x	x	-	*5 step system
Georgia	Yes	◆	x	-	-	x	Yes	x	x	-	x	x	x*	*recreation
New York	Yes	3	x	x	x	-	Yes	x	x	-	-	-	-	
Michigan	Yes	3	x	x	-	-	Yes	x	x	x	x	-	-	
Washington	Yes	<1	-	x	-	x	Yes	x*	x*	x*	x*	x*	-	*maximum only
Illinois - Dwight	Yes	?	-	x	-	x	Yes	-	x	-	x	x	x*	*eligible for C-B programs
Massachusetts	Yes	<1	-	x	-	-	Yes	x	x	-	x*	-	-	*unsentenced only
Indiana	Yes	2	x	x	-	-	Yes	-	-	-	x	x	-	*various categories: age, sentence, repeaters, etc.
Illinois - Vienna	No	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	No*	x	x	x	-	-	-	*Program planning team signs contract with inmate.
Colorado	Yes	2	x	x	x	-	Yes	x	x	x	-	-	-	
Nebraska	Yes	4	x	x	x	-	Yes	x	x	x	-	x	x*	*visiting privileges
Minnesota	No	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Yes	-	-	-	-	-	x*	*off grounds privileges
Minnesota POPS	No	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	No	-	-	-	-	-	-	

◆ = unspecified

Table 3.1.4 Reception and Classification in Major Jails

	Function of Unit							Activities Affected by Classification						
	Special Reception Unit (Center)	No. of Days in Reception Unit	Orientation	Medical Exam/ Quarentine	Testing	Observe Behavior	Classification	Programs	Jobs	Counseling	Housing	Mobility	Other	
Sybil Brand	No	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Yes	-	x	-	x*	x	-	* e.g., homosexuals, aliens, mentally ill
Rikers	*	1	-	x	-	x	Yes	-	-	-	x**	-	-	*in hospital **e.g., adolescents, 1st offenders
Cook County	Yes	7-10	x	x	x	-	Yes	-	-	-	x	-	-	
Harris	No	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Yes	x	x	-	x*	x	-	*homosexuals housed in separate unit
Dallas	No*	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Yes	-	-	-	**	x	-	*except infectious disease cases **in some cases
Dade	No	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	Yes	-	-	-	x	-	-	

SUMMARY

In summary, the intake process is generally the first point of contact between the client and the institution. The process includes one or more of the following procedures: booking, orientation and general classification or formal classification.

In almost all prisons and the major county jails, the booking process consists of fingerprinting, photographs, and issuance of identification numbers. In addition, the process may require a body search, shower and shampoo, and in some instances, spraying with disinfectant and a vaginal search. Most jails limit processing for unsentenced women to fingerprinting and photographs until it is determined that the woman is to be held awaiting trial.

In all institutions, body search was reported in 75% of all cases; showers in 56%, vaginal searches in 48%, and disinfectant spraying 39%.

Many institutions maintained a separate unit for immediate housing of new inmates; these were generally called reception centers, isolation, quarantine, or segregation. The purpose of this unit is to enable staff to conduct orientation and classification duties. Length of stay in these units ranged from less than one week to five weeks. None of the moderate or small jails maintained a separate unit for this purpose.

Orientation programs ranged from an informal process of familiarizing the new inmate with the rules and regulations of the institution to a highly structured series of lectures and activities dealing with all aspects of the services and programs available in the institution.

General classification is a process of labeling inmates on basic characteristics, such as sex, offense, security level, or criminal justice status. General classification was used in many jails and some prisons.

Formal classification denotes the process of diagnosis or evaluation of the inmate to determine the most appropriate programs. In this sense, classification for female prisoners differs from that for men, since classification for men typically involves deciding *which* institution will receive the male inmate. Since there is *typically* only one women's prison in a state, the question of where to send a woman is largely irrelevant. Classification may depend on more than one factor and it may relate to more than just levels of security. In those institutions which used a formal classification process, some or all of the following procedures were utilized: medical examination, psychological testing, educational achievement testing, vocational testing, psychiatric evaluation and personal interviews. Primary activities affected by classification in most prisons were: programs, jobs, housing and mobility.

Formal classification was rare in jails because of high inmate turnover combined with lack of staff, bed space, and programs.

COUNSELING AND TREATMENT

Counseling and treatment have as many definitions and meanings inside institutions as they do on the outside, possibly even more. In the free community, most forms of counseling are based on the premise that the client has some problem or inadequacy which is amenable to correction or cure by treatment. Thus, therapy is widely held to be based upon the "medical model" of diagnosis and treatment. The complexities of the prison setting make categorization of modalities difficult to define, if not downright unrealistic, due to the severe shortage of trained counselors. Ratios of counseling staff to inmates were not tabulated for the specific reason that to do so would be grossly misleading, since some institutions consider all staff to be providers of counseling/treatment. At the same time, an increasing number of criminologists and inmates have begun to view treatment as unnecessary and even as counterproductive "head trips."

Those counseling and treatment services that were available could generally be classified as 1) evaluation; 2) counseling; and 3) therapy (although therapy seemed more conspicuous by its absence).

Evaluation or diagnosis was generally performed as part of the classification process. It may include psychiatric, psychological and/or psychometric evaluation to determine such factors as emotional stability, neurotic or psychotic tendencies and mental capacity (typically considered to be measured in terms of I.Q.).

Therapy generally relates to the more classical concepts of psychotherapy in which the therapist and his client interact to explore a client's past experiences as they relate to current problems. Such treatment is generally scheduled over a long period of time and is quite expensive; as such, it is largely unavailable on an extensive basis in correctional institutions. Other forms of therapy may include such modalities as Transactional Analysis or Behavior Modification.

Counseling generally denotes interaction between a counselor and client which is oriented towards exploration of present feelings and problems concerning coping behavior and advice or assistance to the inmates' immediate practical needs. Counseling is typically provided on a one-to-one basis (individual counseling) or within groups of inmates (group counseling) Group counseling involves individuals who have common problems who work together, often with a group leader, to explore and resolve problems through interaction with peers. It is designed to provide both support and insight into personal modes of coping with problems. Group counseling is typically conducted in prison on a regularly scheduled basis, and should be distinguished from group meetings or "grouping" which denotes sporadic group sessions organized by staff and typically conducted to solve crisis-related problems concerning daily living. Individual counseling may be conducted on an on-going or sporadic basis.

Table 3.2.1 Counseling Staff and Services in Prisons

		STAFF						SERVICES					TREATMENT MODALITIES					
	Population	Psychiatrist Full-time	Psychiatrist Part-time	Psychologist Full-time	Psychologist Part-time	Social Worker Full-time	Counselor (Correctional)	Intake Interview	Individual Psycho Therapy	Individual Counseling	Drug Counseling	Alcohol Counseling	Transactional Analysis (T.A.)	Behavior Modification	Therapeutic Community	Reality Therapy	Encounter Groups	
California	752	1	1	-	1	-	23	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	
Texas	662	-	1	1	-	2	1*	x	x	x	-	x	x	x	-	-	-	*Drug counselor
Florida	519	1	-	3	-	-	4	x	x	x	x	x	-	x*	-	-	-	*For obese women
North Carolina	420	-	1	1	-	1	4	x	x	x	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	
Georgia	377	-	1	-	-	-	4	x	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	
New York	365	1	-	-	1	-	5	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Michigan	308	-	-	1	4	2	5*	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	x*	-	-	*Drug counselors for therapeutic community
Washington	150	-	1	-	1	3	59*	x	-	x	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	*All staff considered treatment staff
Illinois - Dwight	101	-	-	1	-	-	3	x	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	
Massachusetts	90	-	2	2	-	8*	-	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	-	x**	-	*Evening hours **Institutional Milieu
Indiana	89	-	-	-	1	-	3	x	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	
Illinois - Vienna	58	-	1	-	1	-	7	x	x	x	-	-	x*	-	x*	-	-	*Primarily drug-related problems
Colorado	80	-	-	-	2	-	1*	x	x	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	*Part-time
Nebraska	53	-	-	1	-	1	-	x	x	x	-	x	x	-	-	-	x	
Minnesota	39	-	1	-	1	2	16*	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	x**	*All cottage staff **Chemically dependent
Minnesota POPS	15	-	1	-	1	-	3*	x	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	*Community workers

x indicates program exists

Table 3.2.2 Counseling Staff and Services in Major Jails

		STAFF						SERVICES					TREATMENT MODALITIES					
	Population	Psychiatrist Full-time	Psychiatrist Part-time	Psychologist Full-time	Psychologist Part-time	Social Worker Full-time	Counselor (Correctional)	Intake Interview	Individual Psycho Therapy	Individual Counseling	Drug Counseling	Alcohol Counseling	Transactional Analysis (T.A.)	Behavior-Modification	Therapeutic Community	Reality Therapy	Encounter Groups	
Sybil Brand	740	-	1*	-	-	1*	-	x	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	* Available from County Health Department
Rikers	373	-	4	1	-	1	4*	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	x**	-	* Paraprofessionals (4) **Development Unit
Cook County	160	-	1	1	-	2	2*	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	* Drug Counselors
Harris	133	-	-*	-*	-	-	1	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	* Available from County Health Department
Dallas	124	-	-*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	* By court mandate only.
Dade	115	-	1	-	-	3	1*	x	x	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	* Drug Counselor

x indicates program exists

Table 3.2.3 Counseling Staff and Services in Drug and Alcohol Programs

		Staff			Services				Treatment Modalities							
DRUG PROGRAMS	Population	Social Worker	Counselor	Ex-Offenders	Group Counseling	Individual Counseling	Drug Counseling	Alcohol Counseling	Transactional Analysis	Behavior Modification	Therapeutic Community	Reality Therapy	Encounter Group	Gestalt Therapy	Psychodrama	Mixed
Renaissance (New York)	16	-	3	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-
Quaker Committee on Social Rehabilitation (New York)	14	-	3	-	x	x	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-
Patrician Movement (Texas)	24	-	NA	x	x	-	x	-	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-
Cognition House (Indiana)	(28)	-	1	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-
Harambee House (Georgia)	(30)	-	8	x	x	-	x	-	x	-	x	-	x	x	x	-
Pharm House (Minnesota)	(23)	-	6	x	x	-	x	-	x	x	x	-	x	-	x	-
Project Interaction (Minnesota)	(19)	-	4	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-	x	x	-
Freedom House (Minnesota)	(19)	-	1	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	x	x	x	-	-	-
Operation Awareness (Washington)	(21)	-	3	x	x	-	x	-	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-
Stepping Stones (Colorado)	(13)	-	4	x	x	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-
Empathy House (Colorado)	(29)	-	1	-	-	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ALCOHOL PROGRAMS																
Stepping Stones* (Florida)	7	-	-	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Samaritan Goodwill Center (North Carolina)	6	-	5	x	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Studio Club (Washington)	(27)	1	6	x	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	x

( ) indicates figures are for Male and Female population
* Alcohol counseling is through the Seven Step Foundation.

Table 3.2.4 Counseling Staff and Services in Halfway Houses and Alternatives to Incarceration

HALFWAY HOUSES & ALTERNATIVES TO INCARCERATION	Population	Staff			Services				Treatment Modalities						
		Social Worker	Counselor	Ex-offenders	Group Counseling	Individual Counseling	Drug Counseling	Alcohol Counseling	Transactional Analysis	Behavior Modification	Reality Therapy	Encounter Group	Gestalt Therapy	Bioenergetics	Transcendental Meditation
Project Green Hope (New York)	5	2	2	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
New Directions (Texas)	18	-	3	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
Project Transition (Michigan)	23	-	5	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	x	-	-	-	-
Heartline (Michigan)	34	-	3	x	x	x	-	-	x	x	x	-	-	-	-
Fairfield House (Florida)	6	-	3	-	x	x	x	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	-
Women Probationer's Residence (Florida)	6	-	3	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
H.E.L.P. (Florida)	3	-	3	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Spectrum (Florida)	8	2	2	x	x	x	x	-	x	-	-	x	x	-	-
180 Degrees (Minnesota)	11	-	3	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	-	x	-	-
Project Elen (Minnesota)	10	-	2	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	x	x	x
Women's Community Center (Washington)	11	-	5	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
Dorcas House (Washington)	5	-	3	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-
Miriam Center (Nebraska)	7	-	3	-	x	x	-	-	x	x	x	-	-	-	-

Table 3.2.5 Counseling Staff and Services in Work Release, Pre-Release and Academic Pre-Release Programs

WORK RELEASE/PRE-RELEASE	Population	Staff			Services				Treatment Modalities			
		Social Worker	Counselor	Ex-offenders	Group Counseling	Individual Counseling	Drug Counseling	Alcohol Counseling	Transactional Analysis	Behavior Modification	Therapeutic Community	Reality Therapy
Parkside (New York)	35	-	2	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-
Women In New Directions (Illinois)	18	-	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Park House (Florida)	12	-	4	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	x
Community Correctional Center (Florida)	16	-	4	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-
Charlotte House (Massachusetts)	9	-	1	x	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	-
Community-Based Facility for Women (North Carolina)	8	-	3	-	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	-
Women's Work Release Center (Georgia)	62	-	8	-	x	-	-	x	x	x	-	x
Omaha Women's Work Release Center (Nebraska)	6	-	2	-	x	x	x	-	x	-	-	-
ACADEMIC PRE-RELEASE												
Resident Release Project (Washington)	3	-	2	x	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-

Among the prisons in our sample, only the institutions in California, Florida and New York had a full-time psychiatrist, while others had part-time psychiatrists. It should be noted that psychiatrists, unlike all other treatment staff, have medical degrees and are thereby licensed to prescribe medication. No other treatment staff (except for physicians) may prescribe drugs. Considering the limited time psychiatrists are available in institutions, it seems likely that much of their time is spent conducting intake and court-ordered examinations and monitoring patients for whom medication has been prescribed.

Although all of the prisons and 5 of the large jails reported that individual counseling was available, and 11 of these institutions reported that individual psychotherapy was available, it is highly unlikely that a meaningful level of any counseling or psychotherapy can be provided by so few staff.

In the moderate and small jails counseling and therapy were largely non-existent. Two notable exceptions were Monroe County Jail (New York) and Spokane County Jail (Washington) which have relatively strong individual counseling programs.

Most institutions indicated that counseling sessions were voluntary and that inmates had the right to refuse treatment. Twelve (12) prisons said that an inmate had the right to refuse treatment with the following qualifications: Georgia required a written statement; Texas said "except when medication is indicated"; and Washington said that the woman was "encouraged to deal with her refusal." In the Minnesota POPS program the woman had the right to refuse to enter the program, but if she accepted, she had no option regarding the treatment offered. In one institution, the response to the question was that women had "no right to get it" (treatment). Access to available counseling/treatment services varied per institution: in 3 prisons inmates were assigned counselors throughout their stay; in 7 prisons, inmates had to submit written requests through some other staff member; and in 3 prisons counseling was available only on referral by staff.

The most frequent treatment modality utilized was Transactional Analysis (used in 8 prisons and 2 of the larger jails as a means for helping inmates to develop an understanding of communication skills). Three prisons (Texas, Florida, Washington) utilized Behavior Modification (primarily positive reinforcement for desired behavior, although non-compliance often resulted in loss of some privileges). The most common prison adaptations were the point system and the step or level system which utilize incentives and rewards to reinforce positive behavior. Three prisons (Washington, Vienna - Illinois, and a drug unit in Michigan) operated therapeutic communities (an outgrowth of Maxwell Jones' concept of peer-enforced therapy situations for drug addicts).

Massachusetts' prison was the only institution to use Reality Therapy throughout the institution, in what was referred to as the institutional milieu. Milieu therapy (use of a single modality) is designed to achieve a consistent approach to clients within all aspects of the program.

Our examination of community-based programs clearly demonstrated that these programs generally focused more intently on counseling and therapy, but that many used a variety of therapies in an eclectic manner. However, Reality Therapy, which focuses on present behavior was the most popular therapeutic approach in programs at the community level, possibly because these programs were heavily oriented toward survival skills training.

It is interesting to note that work-release programs, which were the only type of program run solely by correctional agencies, typically offered no therapy at all and very minimal counseling.

SUMMARY

Counseling and treatment have as many meanings inside institutions as they do on the outside, possibly more. However, our examination of counseling and treatment within institutions revealed that it is extremely limited, at least on any consistent level, due to extremely inadequate numbers of staff. Psychiatric staff are generally limited to evaluating new inmates and prescribing medication. In the moderate and small jails, counseling and treatment were largely non-existent, with the exception of New York's Monroe County and Washington's Spokane County.

Most institutions indicated that counseling sessions were voluntary and that inmates had the right to refuse treatment. Modes of access to treatment varied per institution.

In contrast, our examination of community-based programs revealed that they focused heavily on counseling and therapy, but that most counseling was oriented towards survival skills training. Accordingly, the most frequently used treatment modality in the community was Reality Therapy.

HEALTH CARE

Medical care is beginning to be regarded as a right rather than a privilege; health care has not yet received the same recognition. Few institutions provide total health care, though all have some type of medical care.

Health care can be defined primarily as health maintenance, including educational programs designed to provide knowledge of how the body functions and how to recognize early signs or symptoms of disease. Health care in an institutional setting also involves specific aspects of the program designed to promote a healthful environment, such as:

-- environmental conditions (privacy, noise level, etc.)

-- food services (special dietary needs)

-- recreation and exercise

Health care, in the broadest sense, is related to personal well-being and stability of physical functions.

Medical care, on the other hand, is provided in response to illness or injury.

MEDICAL SERVICES

The delivery of medical services to women in prisons, jails and community-based programs varied widely from one type of institution to the next as well as within each of the three groups. The range of services ran the gamut from emergency care only, through complete health and medical care including dental care, cosmetic surgery and physical therapy.

Every institution in our sample, regardless of the other services available, had some arrangement for emergency care either in-house or with a hospital in the community. Most institutions also had arrangements for transportation in such emergencies, including ambulance service. However, several institutions, notably small and moderate sized jails, indicated that in an actual emergency, staff coverage was often a problem since a female inmate must be accompanied by a female staff member. Personnel from the adjacent or near-by male institution or from law-enforcement agencies in the community were called in some emergency situations. (It should be noted that most medical emergencies such as heart attacks, hemorrhage and shock requiring immediate treatment are relatively rare among the age group in the institutions, except of course in the case of accidents, assaults or self-inflicted injuries.)

Beyond true emergency care, little uniformity existed in the range of medical services that were available; in general, however, four patterns emerged:

Type A - Complete Services

Complete routine intake physical examiniation including pregnancy test, pap smear and VD tests. Annual physical examinations including pap smear and breast examination. Twenty-four hour emergency coverage. Dental care including fillings, extractions and possibly restorations. In addition, some (but not all) of the following services were available: minor surgery, cosmetic surgery, X-rays, laboratory services, physical therapy, eye glasses, and educational programs.

Type B - Limited Services

Intake physical examination (as above). Sporadic "routine" examinations, primarily in response to a problem or special request. Emergency care available with evening coverage by paramedical personnel. Some dental care.

Type C - Extremely Limited Services

Intake physical, often limited in scope and with few routine laboratory procedures. Routine care limited to daily sick-call and dispensing of medications. Emergency dental care, usually limited to extractions.

Type D - Minimal Services

No routine examinations. Medical services on request only, and then limited to sporadic visits by physician. Correctional personnel dispensed medication.

In the prisons, the range of services was distributed as follows: six (6) type A; eight (8) type B; one (1) type C; and one (1) type D.

In the six large jails, the distribution was: one (1) type A; two (2) type B; and three (3) type C.

In the moderate and small jails, the available medical service was more limited, in part because of the shorter length of sentence, in part because of the small number of inmates, and in part because emergency services were more readily available in the immediate vicinity of the jail. Only one (1) jail (Westchester County, New York) was type A; there were four (4) type B; fourteen (14) type C; and twelve (12) type D. (Medical data were unavailable on four (4) jails.)

It must be stressed however, that the availability of services does not ensure quality of care in terms of accuracy of diagnosis or treatment of problems identified, nor does it ensure inmate access to services or client satisfaction.

Most of the prisons had prenatal care available in-house, however most deliveries were done in the community. Four of the large prisons had nurseries where new born infants could stay for a limited time. The majority of prisons indicated that abortions could be performed at the request of the inmates, but many of the respondents indicated that there were some difficulties (unspecified), and that few inmates requested abortions.

MEDICAL FACILITIES

Five of the prisons had separate hospital buildings. Two were quite old and in poor condition, one (Massachusetts) was modern and in excellent condition. All had bed space available, ranging from 16 to 37 beds.

Seven of the prisons utilized a wing of some building, usually the administration building for infirmary space. All of these had bed space ranging from 4 beds in one institution to a high of 24 beds in two institutions.

Two small prisons had a medical suite but no patient beds. Two other prisons had a single room for medical care, and no patient beds.

There are several reasons why correctional institutions maintain hospital bed space. One is the problem of security coverage; a second is the high cost of outside hospitalization; and a third is distance from a major medical center. In most cases, the hospital is more correctly an infirmary, with bed space for patients who require nursing care for illnesses and injuries. In most cases, surgery was performed at an outside hospital and the patient was transferred back to the institution for convalescent care.

Small institutions and those located near urban centers tended to have fewer beds available and depended more on outside hospitalization. Economics are obviously an important factor in the amount of bed space and resources within an institution.

The jails, with few exceptions, tended to rely almost exclusively on hospitals located in the community. Rikers Island (New York) is a notable exception, with a branch of Montefiore Hospital located in the prison itself.

MEDICAL STAFF

The medical staffing patterns in the institutions also showed considerable variation, as indicated in Tables 3.3.1 and 3.3.2. There were four major types:

Type A - In-House Staff/Resources

All medical services provided by staff on the payroll of the institution.

Type B - Primarily In-House Staff/Resources

Most medical services provided as in type A but some regular use of outside resources, such as private physicians (often at the inmate's expense), county public health departments, medical and dental schools.

Type C - Primarily Outside Resources

Services provided primarily by outside agencies, such as the Department of Public Health, residents and interns, and (rarely) volunteers. Some in-house staff available, mostly registered nurses.

Type D - Outside Resources

Total reliance on outside resources such as private physicians (on a fee-for-service basis), and community health services. In-house services limited to emergency coverage, oftne by paramedical personnel.

Most of the prisons had type B staffing (primarily provided by in-house staff/resources). The distribution of staffing pattern among prisons was as follows: two (2) type A; eleven (11) type B; and three (3) type D.

In the large jails the pattern was: two (2) type A; two (2) type B; and one each of types C and D.

Table 3.3.1 Medical Staff in Prisons

	Population	Physician - Full Time	Physician - Part Time	R.N. - Full Time	R.N. - Part Time	L.V.N./L.P.N.	Paramedics	Dentist - Full Time	Dentist - Part Time	
California	752	3	-	14	-	-	-	2	-	
Texas	662	-	1	1	-	4	-	-	3*	* equal to one full time
Florida	519	1	-	6	-	5	-	1	-	
North Carolina	420	-	8*	5	-	2	2	1	-	* on call - conduct eleven clinics a week
Georgia	377	-	*	1	-	-	-	-	-	* M.D. on loan part-time from Central State Hospital
New York	365	1	7	5	-	-	-	1	-	
Michigan	308	1	-	4	-	-	-	-	1	
Washington	150	-	4*	2	-	4	-	-	1	* on contract
Illinois - Dwight	101	-	2	1	-	5	-	-	1	
Massachusetts	90	-	1	4	-	4	-	-	1	
Indiana	89	-	1	3	-	1	1	-	1	
Illinois - Vienna	58	-	2	-	-	1	4	-	1	Medical staff also serve 395 male inmates.
Colorado	80	-	1	1	-	2	-	-	1	
Nebraska	53	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	1*	* on contract - out in community
Minnesota	39	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	
Minnesota POPS	15	-	4	1	2	-	-	1	-	Medical staff serve about 200 inmates in the Lino Lakes facility.

Table 3.3.2 Medical Staff in Major Jails

	Population	Physician - Full Time	Physician - Part Time	R.N. - Full Time	R.N. - Part Time	L.V.N./L.P.N.	Paramedics	Dentist - Full Time	Dentist - Part Time
Sybil Brand	740	1	2	21	-	-	-	-	1
Rikers	373	4	-	31	-	2	3	1	-
Cook County	160	2	-	2	-	2	-	1	-
Harris	133	-	2	1	-	-	14	-	1
Dallas	124	3	-	1	-	12	-	-	2
Dade	115	-	1	3	-	1	-	-	-

In the moderate and small jails the modal pattern was also type B (primarily in-house). The distribution among all of these jails was: seven (7) type A; thirteen (13) type B; five (5) type C; and eight (8) type D. (Information was not available on three jails in this group.)

Thus type B patterns were most frequent in both prisons and jails.

MEDICAL PROBLEMS OF INMATES

Part of our study focused on determining medical staff's perceptions of the most frequent medical problems of incarcerated women. As indicated in the following table, the most frequent problems reported by staff were gynecological (including related anemia); nervousness/anxiety; and headaches and pain.

Table 3.3.3 Most Frequent Inmate Medical Problems as Reported by Medical Staff

Medical Problems	Number of Times Mentioned[1] (N=53)
Gynecological (includes vaginal discharge, venereal disease, menstrual cramps, anemia, pregnancy)	41
Nerves (anxiety, depression)	33
Headaches (pain)	23
Respiratory infections (includes colds, flu, sore throat, sinus)	20
Drug-related (withdrawal, alcoholism)	18
Gastrointestinal	8
Dental Problems	6

[1] Totals exceed 53 because of multiple responses.

Other common problems which were frequently noted by medical staff of prisons and jails were minor accidents, cuts, skin conditions, bladder infections and obesity.

Table 3.3.4 Most Frequent Chronic Diseases of Inmates as Reported by Medical Staff

Chronic Diseases	Number of Times Mentioned[1] (N=53)
Diabetes	19
Hypertension	19
Drug addiction, Alcoholism, etc.	17
Epilepsy	12

[1] Totals exceed 53 because of multiple responses.

It is unclear to what extent the frequency of any problem noted is actually related to conditions of confinement; however, many incarcerated women have been known to gain inordinate amounts of weight due to the nature of institutional food and lack of exercise; and obesity frequently has a negative impact on health and self-image.

Chronic illnesses most frequently noted by medical staff were: diabetes, which requires medication and a special diet; hypertension (high blood pressure, cardiac problems); epilepsy; drug addiction and alcoholism (and related problems such as hepatitis and liver ailments). (Table 3.3.4)

MEDICATION

Medical staff in 42 of the 53 reporting institutions in our sample reported frequent dispensing of pain medications to inmates. Similarly, medical staff of 31 institutions reported frequent dispensing of tranquilizers and mood elevators (psychotropic drugs). Table 3.3.5 shows a distribution of types of drugs which medical staff reported that they used most frequently.

Over the past several years, much public concern has focused on the potential abuse involved in widespread use of tranquilizers in correctional institutions. As mentioned, 31 of the 53 institutions in our sample reported frequent use of tranquilizers and mood elevators. Most institutions did not report that a majority of its inmates were given tranquilizers and mood elevators. And many small jails reported no use at all of tranquilizers. Among the 16 prisons in our sample, only the Minnesota Property Offender Program, which had a population of 15, reported no use of tranquilizers. Amount of reported use of tranquilizers varied widely among prisons. Seven prisons (Nebraska, New York, Texas, Massachusetts, North Carolina, Minnesota and Washington) reported that from 5 to 13 percent of all inmates received tranquilizers. Four prisons (Dwight in Illinois, Michigan, Florida, and California) reported dispensing tranquilizers to 20 to 25 percent of all inmates. Three prisons (Colorado, Indiana and Georgia) reported that from 30 to 39 percent of their inmates were given tranquilizers. Illinois' prison at Vienna reported that 55 percent of all female inmates were given tranquilizers. Among jails, the proportion of use also varied widely. Heaviest use of tranquilizers was reported at jails in California: Sybil Brand (50%), San Bernardino County (40-50%), San Francisco (98%), San Diego (65%); King County (Washington) (73%); Bexar County (Texas) (50%); in New York: Westchester County (50%) and Monroe County (50%); Wayne County (Michigan) (80%); and Dekalb County (Georgia) (50% - primarily mood elevators).

Table 3.3.5 Inmate Drug Use in the Institution as Reported by Medical Staff

Chronic Diseases	Number of Institutions Reporting Frequent Use[1] (N=53)
Pain Medication (aspirin, A.P.C., tylenol, tylenol/codeine, darvocet, Darvon, salatin; plus unspecified "headache pills")	42
Tranquilizers* & Psychotropic Drugs** (*tranquilizers named included valium, librium, thorazine, vistaril and atarax); (**psychotropic drugs (or mood elevators) named were triavil, elavil, stelazine and mellaril)	31
Antihistamines (and other "cold pills" and decongestants. Only benedril was named as a specific antihistamine)	18
Antibiotics (unspecified)	15
Gastrointestinal Drugs (maalox, belkatol, bardase and gelusil)	17
Anti-epileptic Drugs (including dilantin and phenobarbitol)	11

[1] Totals exceed 53 because of multiple responses.

Of all the states in our sample, Minnesota reported the least amount of use of tranquilizers; in fact, none of Minnesota's jails report use of tranquilizers or mood elevators.

DRUG TESTING

The Detroit House of Corrections was the only institution involved with a pharmaceutical firm in drug testing. Although the medical staff reported no current activity, the company trailer was still on the grounds. Birth control pill and skin testing had been done there at least as recently as late 1974. Inmates were paid for their participation, but the amount was not specified.

SUMMARY

Medical care delivery varied widely among the institutions in our sample. The most frequent range of services in institutions consisted of intake examinations; sporadic "routine" examinations, primarily in response to a problem or a specific request; emergency care available with evening coverage by paramedical personnel; and limited dental care. Medical services in moderate-sized and small jails were even more limited, primarily because of economic reasons and the proximity of services in the community within which the jails are located.

Prison medical services were typically provided through use of in-house staff and resources. Most prisons offered prenatal care, although delivery of babies usually occurred in the community. Five of the prisons had separate hospital buildings.

Medical staff of institutions reported that the most frequent medical problems concerned gynecological problems (including related anemia); nervous tension/anxiety, depression and insomnia, headaches and pain; and drug and alcohol related problems. Chronic illnesses reported by medical staff to be most frequent were diabetes, hypertension, drug addiction, and epilepsy.

Pain medications, tranquilizers and mood elevators were reported to be dispensed to a large proportion of inmates. The proportion of inmates administered tranquilizers and mood elevators (psychotropic drugs) varied widely among institutions; the range of use was reported by medical staff to be from zero in Minnesota jails and 5% (in Massachusetts) to 98% (in San Francisco's jail). Such widespread use of tranquilizers and mood elevators is probably related to the stresses of institutional life although not clearly justified by data on inmates' medical problems. It is more likely that tranquilizers and mood elevators are widely used in some institutions as a means to facilitate control of large inmate populations. One can only speculate on the impact of such long term medication upon physical and mental functioning of inmates and the impact of psychological dependence on such drugs among inmates released from institutions and expected to assume a responsible, self-directed role in society.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Education programs, including vocational education and skills training, are generally regarded by correctional program administrators and planners to be those programs with the most potential for changing the lifestyle orientation of the inmate upon release from prison by increasing the inmate's self sufficiency and job skills. Focus on education and training programs has increased in recent years with growing skepticism among criminologists concerning the effectiveness of counseling and use of specific treatment modalities, although as the section on Counseling and Treatment revealed, the resources for these services in prison or jail are extremely limited.

Impetus for this change in program orientation towards job-related education and skills training has come recently from a growing recognition that most women will work at some time in their lives, and that incarcerated women need job skills that will enable them to survive when they are released. This growing emphasis on programs to increase an inmate's job potential, and in a broader sense, survival skills, has been aided by funds available from the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA).

Despite this apparent change in the philosophy of corrections, progress toward these ends is slow, partially because of competition for resources for new, improved programs, but mostly because there seems to be little agreement about which type of education or skills training is most relevant to the current job market and compatible with the often tradition-bound perceptions of administrators and program planners concerning the interests and abilities of female inmates.

At the time of our study, all of the prisons and large jails (with the exception of Harris County Jail in Texas) had some type of educational program available for inmates at least at the remedial (basic literacy) and/or high school equivalency level. In general most of these programs were focused on the instrumental (extrinsic) value of education as a means to some end, presumably, a job.

Educational programs can be functionally divided into academic education and vocational education and skills training.

Table 3.4.1 Academic Staff, Inmate Enrollment and Adult Education in Prisons

		Staff							Academic Classes[1]				Adult Education				
	Population	Administrators	Academic Teachers Full-time	Academic Teachers Part-time	Vocational Teachers Full-time	Vocational Teachers Part-time	Counselors (incl. Guidance & Voc.)	Other Staff	Remedial Education	High School/G.E.D.	TOTAL	College	Consumer Education	Family Life Education	Child Development	Personal Grooming	
California	752	2	3	1	7	-	(1)	-	NA	NA	125	110	-	x	x	-	
Texas	662	2	12	-	5	-	1	1*	139	245	384	80	-	-	-	-	*Education Consultant
Florida	519	3	16	-	21	-	6	-	50	70	120	50	-	-	-	x	
North Carolina	420	1	6	-	1	3	1	2*	45	NA	NA	-	x	x	-	-	*Teacher aides
Georgia	377	-	2	-	3	-	(2)	1	22	12	34	21	-	-	-	-	*Teacher aide
New York	365	4	9*	3	9	2	-	4/(2)	23	167	190	88	x	x	x	x	*Title I (3)
Michigan	308	No school programs operating at time of study.															
Washington	150	1	7	-	2	-	1/(1)	-	-	11	11	10	x	x	x	x	
Illinois - Dwight	101	1	2	-	1	-	1	-	73	22	95	-	-	-	-	-	
Massachusetts	90	-	2	-	1	-	(1)	-	NA	NA	8	-	-	-	-	-	
Indiana	89	-	2	-	3	-	-	-	8	11	19	-	-	-	-	-	
Illinois - Vienna	58	2	4	2	*	*	3	-	-	10	10	42	x	x	x	-	*Teachers from community College
Colorado	80	1	1	2	3	-	(1)	-	14	4	18	10*	-	-	-	-	*Co-ed class at men's prison.
Nebraska	53	2	3	1	1	1	1	-	13	5	18	-	x	x	x	x	
Minnesota	39	-	1	-	2	-	(1)	1*	-	4	4	14	-	-	-	x	*Off-grounds vocational supervisor.
Minnesota POPS	15	-	1	-	-	-	*	-	2	5	7	-	-	x	-	-	*Community workers perform this service.

( ) indicates part-time [1]Number Enrolled

Table 3.4.2 Academic Staff, Inmate Enrollment and Adult Education in Major Jails

		Staff							Academic Classes[1]				Adult Education				
	Population	Administrators	Academic Teachers Full-time	Academic Teachers Part-time	Vocational Teachers Full-time	Vocational Teachers Part-time	Counselors (incl. Guidance & Voc.)	Other Staff	Remedial Education	High School/ G.E.D.	TOTAL	College	Consumer Education	Family Life Education	Child Development	Personal Grooming	
Sybil Brand	740	-	2	1	4	-	1	1*	NA	NA	56	-	-	x	-	x	*Teacher aide
Rikers	373	1	14	-	2	-	1	4*	NA	NA	98	35	x	x	x	x	*Program Coord.(1) Adult Education(3)
Cook County	160	-	3	-	7	9	1	-	-	30	30	6	-	x	x	x	
Harris	133	1	-	-	4	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	
Dallas	124	1	-	3	-	-	NA	1*	-	18	18	25	-	-	-	-	*Adult Education
Dade	115	1	-	3	-	3	1	-	5	18	23	-	-	x	-	-	

[1]Number Enrolled

Table 3.4.3 Inmate Enrollment in Vocational Education Programs in Prisons

	Population	Clerical	Barbering/ Cosmetology	Food Services	Computer Related	Sewing/ Tailoring	Horticulture/ Floraculture	Medical	Basic Electricity	Work Release	Other	TOTAL	
California	752	25	28	--	--	--	--	25	12	--	42*	132	* Graphic Arts (15) Indust./Motel Cleaning(27)
Texas	662	12	11	12	--	--	18	--	--	--	--	53	
Florida	519	26	14	15	37	14	9	8	11	1	12*	147	* Human Services Aide(11) Training Release(1)
North Carolina	420	12	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	38	9*	59	* Training Release
Georgia	377	21	21	2	--	--	--	14	--	1	6*	65	* Drafting(1) Upholstery(4) Shoe Repair(1)
New York	365	31	16	21	22	36	--	--	--	--	4*	130	* Banking
Michigan	308	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	---	Institution in transition no programs operating
Washington	150	22	--	8	12	--	--	--	--	13	11*	66	* Training Release
Illinois - Dwight	101	--	5	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	5	
Massachusetts	90	6	--	--	14	--	--	--	--	12	6*	38	* Graphic Arts
Indiana	89	17	22	--	--	--	--	5	--	1	--	35	
Illinois - Vienna	58	2	13	7	—	—	—	6	—	1	2*	31	* Drafting
Colorado	80	16	4*	8	5	--	--	--	--	2	--	35	* In the community
Nebraska	53	15	--	14	--	--	--	--	--	5	1*	35	* Training Release
Minnesota	39	2	--	--	5	--	--	--	--	1	8*	16	* Off-grounds training program
TOTAL	4063	207	124	87	95	50	27	56	23	75	101	847	

Table 3.4.4 Inmate Enrollment in Vocational Education Programs in Major Jails

	Population	Clerical	Barbering/ Cosmetology	Fashion Design	Interior Design	TOTAL	
Sybil Brand	740	46	*x	--	—	46	*wig styling
Rikers	373	22	--	--	--	22	
Cook County	160	27	12	15	8	62	
Harris	133	50*	--	--	--	50	*called vocational office education
Dallas	124	--	--	--	--	-0-	
Dade	115	6	x	—	--	6	

x indicates program exists - actual number enrolled unknown

Academic education programs generally offered remedial education, high school equivalency, and occasionally college level courses, often leading to an Associate of Arts Degree and, in rare instances, a Bachelor of Arts. Many of the academic programs were primarily remedial in the sense that they provided knowledge and related skills which should have been provided at an earlier stage of the inmate's chronological development. In this sense, the dilemma of correctional education is that it must provide instructional programs in basic, often elementary, level skills such as reading and writing to adult inmates who are chronologically and experientially beyond the interest level of available instructional materials. This problem is compounded by state regulations and, in many instances, funding limitations that dictate the course of study, the material to be used, and the certification requirements of teaching staff.

The terms "vocational education" and "vocational training" are often used interchangeably, without regard for a basic difference in their meaning. In general, vocational education focuses almost entirely on course work concerning specific occupations, and may include other subjects such as labor market information, to prepare the inmate for the world of work and introduce her to specific occupations. Vocational training is a generally structured program of both classroom courses and actual experience in performing tasks in a specific occupation, hopefully leading to certification in that occupation. Some of the vocational training programs in institutions do in fact award certificates of completion to students. However, it is also ironic that many correctional institutions have provided vocational training programs in fields where licensing of exoffenders has been denied.[1]

An examination of the type of vocational training programs in the prisons and major jails in our sample indicated that the most frequently offered training was in clerical skills, cosmetology, and food services. Six prisons (Florida, New York, Washington, Massachusetts, Colorado, and Minnesota) offered training in computer-related work, primarily key punching (interestingly, male inmates are typically given more complex computer-related training). Graphic Arts training was offered in California and Massachusetts prisons. Probably the highest status and most unusual (in comparison to traditional) training program was New York's program in banking, offered through the Chase Manhattan Bank, which promised to hire all successful graduates of the program. However, only 4 inmates out of the total prison population of 365 were actually enrolled in the program.

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[1] Our data include both vocational education and vocational training.

Washington, Minnesota, and Colorado offered training programs in the community. Illinois' prison at Vienna, a co-correctional institution, was the most unique in terms of vocational programs, as this institution is primarily oriented towards academic education and vocational education and training. In Vienna, every vocational education or training program has a citizen advisory board whose members assist inmates who have successfully completed the program to find a job. In addition, the Illinois State Employment Service has an employee located in the prison and assigned to place inmates in jobs upon release from prison. Vienna's programs involved primary participation (indeed almost partnership) by Shawnee College, the local community college.

It should be noted that while training programs were offered in all prisons (except for the prison in Michigan, where programs were temporarily suspended at the time of our study), participation by inmates in many prisons was quite low.[1] In four prisons (California, Texas, North Carolina, Georgia, Illinois-Dwight) less than 18% of all inmates were enrolled in training programs. There were a total of only four vocational training programs reported in the moderate and small jails.

Our examination of academic education programs revealed that all of the prisons (except Washington, Illinois-Vienna, and Minnesota) offered remedial education programs. Almost all of the prisons offered courses leading to a high school equivalency degree.

Three of the large jails (Cook County in Illinois, Dallas County in Texas and Dade County in Florida) reported that they offered high school equivalency degrees. Three of the large jails (Rikers Island in New York, Cook County in Illinois and Dallas County in Texas) offered college level courses. Almost all of these classes were taught by part-time instructors or volunteers. Florida's Dade County jail was the only large jail that reported offering remedial courses.

Almost half of the prisons in our sample offered college courses in academic subjects. The number and type of such courses varied, but in most prisons, not more than two or three choices were available at any one time. The most frequently listed courses were in English literature, psychology and sociology. A few institutions offered a wide range of courses. Since most of the courses were offered by the local junior college, the highest level of attainment possible was the

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[1] For further discussion of participation rates, see pp. 99-101.

Associate of Arts degree. In a few institutions, inmates could take correspondence courses at the college level (generally at their own expense), and in rare cases, an inmate could earn a Bachelor of Arts degree.

Adult education courses in consumer education, family life education, child development and personal grooming were available in eight of the prisons and five of the large jails. Rikers Island (New York) had a single comprehensive adult education course called Consumer Education which includes all of the courses listed above plus what was called "Survival Skills."

At Cook County Jail (Illinois) adult education courses were available through the Women's Educational Resource Center, which was sponsored jointly by Northeastern Illinois University's Center for Inner City Studies and the State of Illinois Board of Higher Education. The course offered included such classes as Drama, Dance, Crafts, Literature of Ethnic Groups, Office Procedures, Photography and a Writer's Workshop. In addition, the center provided supportive services in Educational and Vocational Training Placement, referral to Drug Abuse programs, Housing Assistance, and other services as requested. An attractive brochure was available for the inmates, and the course descriptions were written to "entice" the women to participate. Course descriptions also included a biographical sketch of the leader.

The prison in Washington (Purdy) operated a two-week special school program, called a Winterim, with courses scheduled for two to three hours a day. Each inmate could enroll in two classes, one in the morning and one in the afternoon. The courses covered a wide range of subjects including Woodworking, Small Home Repair (home maintenance skills), Movie Making, Gourmet Cooking, Law and Order (an examination of the legal system), Scuba Diving, and a Cultural Art Fair.

Almost all of the institutions that had an educational program reported that instruction was highly individualized, occasionally within a group setting that ranged from 3 or 4 students per class at Purdy (Washington) to 15-30 per class at Florida's prison.

Individualized instruction was often implemented by the use of programmed instructional material, generally in reading and GED preparation, using reading machines and tape-recorded cassettes.

The scheduling of classes ranged from a completely individualized program, with no set time for classes at the high school level in North Carolina to a full day of classes from 8 a.m. to 3 p.m. at Purdy. Most institutions were somewhere between the two, with classes scheduled both morning and afternoon to accommodate students who worked half-time and went to school half-time.

College classes were almost universally scheduled in the evening. One institution, Rikers Island (New York) noted college classes are scheduled as "mini-semesters," since high attrition rate is a problem. The main educational service at Rikers consists of two separate, independent units -- a regular public school (PS 233) operated by the New York City Board of Education; and a college, run by John Jay College of Criminal Justice of the City University of New York. These two units share the same school rooms at the facility, with the public school operating during the daytime and the college operating in the evenings. The college classes are co-correctional; men come in from the Men's unit at Rikers to take classes with the women.

Approximately half of the prisons considered school attendance equivalent to a work assignment and paid the women according to the wage scale that applied in the institution. In one case, the woman was paid only if she attended school full time (DeHoCo), and in another, the pay scale applied only to women enrolled in classes below the college level (Colorado).

One institution (Texas) awarded personal incentive points, another offered "gain time" for school attendance (North Carolina).

Six prisons did not pay anything to the women who attended school.

In response to the question of whether the education staff received special training or orientation to work in a correctional institution, eight (8) prisons answered "no", one prison's educational staff indicated that they only were told the "do's and don'ts" of dealing with inmates. Seven (7) prisons had formal orientation programs that lasted from one week (40 hours) to five weeks, the latter both pre-service and in-service. Where orientation programs existed, these were limited to staff on the payroll of the institution only, which generally meant that junior college instructors received no training.

SUMMARY

Over the past several years, focus on education programs, including vocational education and training, has increased with growing skepticism concerning the effectiveness of treatment, and resultant emphasis on preparing the inmate for the world of work and survival in the free community. However, progress towards strengthening of vocational and academic programs has been slow, largely due to the tradition-bound perceptions of correctional managers and planners concerning the interests and abilities of female inmates, as well as institutional needs.

At the time of our study, all of the prisons and almost all of the large jails had some type of educational program for inmates, primarily limited to remedial education, high school equivalency and, in several instances, courses leading to an A.A. degree. In rare instances, inmates could take courses leading to a B.A. degree, although this was primarily limited to correspondence courses, which the inmate usually had to pay for herself. The major problem concerning academic education was the fact that instructional materials used were designed for younger students and thus, were often not within the interest level of inmates.

Almost all of the prisons offered vocational training in clerical skills, cosmetology and food services. However, a few prisons took a more innovative approach to training. Participation of inmates in most prisons was quite low for almost all training programs.

Adult education courses in consumer education, family life education, child development and personal grooming were offered in eight of the prisons and five of the large jails.

Interestingly, only seven of the prisons offered formalized orientation programs for education staff.

WORK ASSIGNMENTS

Most institutions define work assignments as jobs other than personal housekeeping chores which are a standard expectation; every inmate is responsible for maintaining her own room, cell, or dorm area. In addition, most prison inmates have a "program" which consists of work and/or education; in jails, work is often a privilege reserved for sentenced inmates who have earned trustee status. Community-based programs also tend to have rotating assignments for maintenance purposes. All of the prisons studied gave work assignments to inmates, but in varying degrees; in Vienna (Illinois) only one-third of the women had work assignments, while in another part of the same state (Dwight), 8 out of 10 women had jobs in the institution.

Table 3.5.1 Work Assignments in Prisons

	Population	Food Services	Sewing Industry	Housekeeping	Clerical	Laundry	Medical	Maintenance	All Other	TOTAL	
California	752	145	112	49	101	27	52	24	0	510	
Texas	662	143	148	124	24	41	21	32	9*	569	* Trustees
Florida	519	68	100	7	21	39	34	0	0	269	
North Carolina	420	45	57	24	10	57	6	33	4*	236	* Beauty Shop
Georgia	377	78*	0	27	21	0	26	7	0	159	* Includes 57 workers in main kitchen at Central State Hospital
New York	365	55	90	80	17	21	15	2	0	280	
Michigan	308	36	22	9	6	0	4	20	64*	161	* Fire Watch (9) Cannery in summer (55)
Washington	150	24	0	1	16	0	2	7	9*	59	* Recreation Asst.(4) Education Asst.(4) Administrative Asst.(1)
Illinois - Dwight	101	18	15	8	22	9	6	3	1*	82	* Recreation
Massachusetts	139*	35	3	6	1	6	5	2	12**	70	* All data include both men & women **Computer Room
Indiana	89	5	13	3	2	15	0	2	2*	42	* Runner
Illinois - Vienna	58	15	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	19	
Colorado	80	12	14	5	1	10	1	3	1*	47	* Sewing Machine Repair
Nebraska	53	16	12	(40)	4	0	0	2	0	34	
Minnesota	39	6	0	1	2	0	0	2	0	11	
Minnesota POPS	15	7	0	2	2	0	0	1	1*	13	* Tutor
TOTAL	4101	708	586	346	254	225	172	140	130	2561	

( ) indicates number not included in total

Table 3.5.2 Work Assignments in Major Jails

	Population	Food Services	Sewing Industry	Housekeeping	Clerical	Laundry	Medical	Maintenance	Other	TOTAL	
Sybil Brand	740	101	50	27	7	35	12	4	38*	274	*beauty shop (18) hobby crafts (20)
Rikers	373	40	21	100	19	23	21	13	15*	252	*beauty shop (10) linen room (5)
Cook County	160	36	-	36	2	4	5	-	-	89	
Harris	133	-	-	10	2	6	2	-	-	20	
Dallas	124	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
Dade	115	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15*	15	*Trustees

Assignments in food services (kitchen and dining room) and clerical positions were found in all prisons, followed by institutional housekeeping and maintenance, which included gardening and institutional repairs. Only Washington's Purdy actually hired outside workers to do housekeeping tasks. Large numbers of women had jobs in prison industry, which will be discussed in detail below. Inmates also worked in medical areas, especially in the infirmary, in beauty shops for staff and inmates, and sometimes in unique jobs, such as fire watch in Detroit House of Corrections and recreation assistant and teacher aides in Purdy Treatment Center (Washington). Some women from the North Carolina Prison and from the felon population in Georgia worked as maids and kitchen help in the governor's mansion, while women in North Carolina also cultivated flowers for the governor's mansion. Since the Georgia prison was located on the grounds of Central State Hospital, women inmates worked in the main hospital kitchen to which they were bussed for round-the-clock shift work.

In most of the moderate and small jails there was no system of work assignments. In the 14 jails where women worked they were usually assigned to housekeeping, food services, laundry or mending, or were simply designated as trustees who performed jobs as needed. Often these work assignments were limited in scope, e.g. food services for an institution might involve simply serving food that was prepared on the men's side of the jail.

Prison job assignments were usually made as a part of the classification process. In most institutions inmates could state their preference for a particular job, although job openings, inmate ability, or security status would affect the final decision. North Carolina reported "no choice" at all;

Purdy (Washington) and Bedford Hills (New York) required a mandatory assignment to the kitchen or other "undesirable" work areas for 30-60 days. Medical clearance was often required for work in food services. Epileptics may be excluded from certain work areas. Women whose offense involved violence with a knife may be excluded from the kitchen.

There was usually, but not always, a mechanism for an inmate to change her job assignment, usually through a reclassification process. A correctional officer in California described a system within the prison which resembles the labor market in the free world: inmates may find out about job openings through informal channels and apply for them through the classification committee; or a work supervisor may hear about a good worker and request the committee to transfer her to a specific work area. Purdy Treatment Center (Washington) circulated formal memos to inmates, describing a forthcoming job opening, job duties, pay rate, application dates, etc.

While kitchen positions were usually the hardest to fill, clerical jobs were the most preferred by inmates, according to staff reports. Occasionally fringe benefits might make jobs more attractive, such as higher pay rates, extra gain time, extra food from the kitchen, or access to men. In the co-correctional prison at Dwight, however, men and women worked in the kitchen on alternate days.

The following table shows the percentages of women in each work area as reported by the institutions and the inmates.

Table 3.5.3 Work Assignments as Reported by Institutions and Inmates in Prisons

	Percent in Work Areas								
PRISONS	Food Services	Sewing	Housekeeping	Clerical	Laundry	Medical	Maintenance	Other	TOTAL
Institution	.29	.20	.15	.10	.10	.07	.06	.03	100%
Inmates	.26	.20	.17	.13	.08	.07	.07	.02	100%

Table 3.5.4 Work Assignments as Reported by Institutions and Inmates in Major Jails

	Percent in Work Areas								
JAILS	Food Services	Sewing	Housekeeping	Clerical	Laundry	Medical	Trustee	Other	TOTAL
Institution	.29	.10	.27	.04	.11	.05	.06	.08	100%
Inmates	.25	.09	.30	.06	.15	.03	.07	.05	100%

PRISON INDUSTRY

Women have been spared the hard labor and work crews which still survive for male convicts in some states; for women the nearest counterpart is the sewing industry.

The sewing industry, which existed in 11 prisons and 2 major jails, often employed the largest numbers of women. Both sewing and laundry were usually commercial-type operations, designed to meet institutional needs. The sewing industry produces uniforms for staff and inmates and often manufactures clothing and other items for other state agencies, from green hospital gowns to bright orange pants and vests for highway workers.

In some prisons, equipment was limited; in others, a wide range of machines was available, including specialities such as embroidery machines and cutting machines. In a full range program a woman could work her way up and master several machines by demonstrating her ability and interest. Most sewing supervisors felt the industry provided some of the women with skills which could be transferred to private industry.[1]

In Massachusetts, the sewing room or "flag room" was devoted to making American Flags. Judging from the small number of women working, what was once a thriving operation appeared to be a dying industry. This situation reflects a change in the philosophy of corrections in Massachusetts, a movement toward increasing inmate options and making institutional experiences more relevant to the inmates' future after release.

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[1] The Maryland Women's Prison (not in our study), contracts with private industry to manufacture free market items under the same quality control standards as private industry.

As a side benefit in some sewing industries, women were allowed, on their own time, to make their own clothes or at least to mend or alter them on machines. Interestingly enough, the large sewing industries were usually located in states with sizeable garment industries such as New York, California and North Carolina.

The laundry was usually one of the least desirable and most physically uncomfortable assignments. Institutional laundry, including staff and inmate uniforms, formed the bulk of the workload. In some institutions, however, laundry was done for other agencies. For example, the Indiana prison with a population of 89 women laundered 25,000 to 30,000 pounds of clothes per month. In North Carolina, when women inmates rioted in June, 1975, one of their demands was that the laundry be closed. The laundry, which served other prisons and hospitals, was not closed, but service to other institutions was discontinued.

It seems appropriate to mention here that in prisons where inmates wore their own street clothes, the individual was responsible for her own laundry. Usually in such places washing machines and dryers were available on living units but in two large institutions, California and Georgia, there were no such laundry facilities operating. The crowded dormitories in Georgia appeared to be decorated with hand-done wash attempting to dry and California provided outmoded wash-boards.

The Detroit House of Corrections was the only institution with a canning industry, which operated only during the summer.

The most unique industry was found at Framingham (Massachusetts) where long-term male inmates operated a data processing center utilizing equipment provided by Minneapolis Honeywell. First begun as a training program, it became an inmate-run business providing EDP services on contract. At the time of this study only one woman worked there as a receptionist, although other women were in the training program.

HOURS AND PAY

The 40-hour work week was reported in most prisons, although this amount of time could be divided between work and school for some inmates. In jails the work week was usually shorter.

Pay ranged from zero to a high of $1.00 per hour in the Minnesota POPS Program. Pay was usually credited to a woman's account, and she could draw a limited amount per week for expenditures at the commissary and perhaps some limited cash for pay phones or vending machines. In some institutions women were paid for attending school or vocational training. In the Florida prison, the only women earning money were in programs Federally funded by C.E.T.A. (Comprehensive Employment and Training Act). In Sybil Brand (Los Angeles County) where most jobs were unpaid, inmates could be paid at piece work rates for doing deputies' clothing: washing, 2 cents per blouse; ironing, 5 cents per blouse.

Table 3.5.5 Pay Range and Work Week in Prisons

	PAY RANGE IN DOLLARS			WORK HOURS PER WEEK	
	HOURLY	DAILY	MONTHLY		
California			7.50-13.50	40	
Texas		.00		40*	
Florida		.00		20-40	
North Carolina			.00*/15.00**	40-56	*some jobs carry gain time **commisary(4) beauty shop(4)
Georgia		.00		40	
New York		.35-1.15		30	
Michigan		.50-.90		40-54	
Washington	.25-.30			40	
Illinois - Dwight	.10			40	
Massachusetts		.35-2.00		15-50	
Indiana			5.00	40-45	
Illinois - Vienna			4.00-20.00	40	
Colorado		.50-1.50		24-36	
Nebraska		1.00*-1.50	12.00-17.00	40	*food service rate
Minnesota		1.75-2.10		35 maximum	
Minnesota POPS	.75-1.00			15-30	

Table 3.5.6 Pay Range and Work Week in Major Jails

	PAY RANGE IN DOLLARS			WORK HOURS PER WEEK	
	HOURLY	DAILY	WEEKLY		
Sybil Brand	.00*			25-40	Earn good time * Some piece work paid for sewing & laundry.
Rikers	.15-.30			35-40	Incentive wage scale
Cook County	.00			12-40	
Harris	.00			15-40	
Dallas					no work assignments
Dade			1.00	varies	

INSTITUTIONAL WORK-RELEASE

Although ten prisons and ten jails had work-release programs from the institution, half of these programs had only one woman involved or none at all. Work release women represented 2% of the prison population and 1% of the jail inmates.

Table 3.5.7 Institutional Work-Release Programs in Prisons

PRISON	Number of Women Involved	Total Population of Institution
Illinois (Vienna)	1	58
Florida	1	519
Massachusetts	12	90
Indiana	1	89
North Carolina	38	420
Georgia	1	377
Minnesota	1	39
Washington	13	150
Colorado	2	80
Nebraska	5	53
Sub Total	75	1875
All other Prisons[1]	0	1895
Total	75	3770

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[1] The remaining six prisons had no work release program.

Table 3.5.8 Institutional Work-Release Programs in Major Jails

JAIL	Number of Women Involved	Total Population of Institution
Monroe County (New York)	1	34
Nassau County (New York)	1	22
Cook County (Illinois)	8	160
Kent County (Michigan)	4	30
Dade County (Florida)	0	115
Fulton County (Georgia)	1	60
Spokane County (Washington)	7	22
Orange County (California)	1	63
Santa Clara County (California)	12	82
San Joaquin County (California)	0	19
Sub Total	35	607
All other Jails[1]	0	2122
Total	35	2729

[1] The remaining 33 jails had no work release program for women.

Most of the programs operated on an individualized basis, with arrangements made and supervision provided by institutional staff. Both North Carolina and Washington had a separate housing unit for this program. The advantage of such separation is that work-releasees are not put under pressure by other inmates to relay messages, bring in contraband, etc. A woman must usually be approaching her release date (ranging from 60 days to 18 months), although in Indiana only lifers who have served 6½ years are eligible for day release. In all instances, women earned on the average from $2 to $3 per hour, paid room and board, and had some kind of mandatory saving plan. Staff generally viewed work-release as a positive step toward reintegration of the inmate into the community; at the same time the institution must be willing to run the risk of community reaction if an inmate on work-release violates the law.

For a jail with a small female population, the Spokane County Jail had an outstanding work-release program. In addition to county misdemeanants, state and federal prisoners planning to parole to the Spokane area, could participate on a contract basis.

COMMUNITY-BASED WORK-RELEASE

As outlined in Appendix A, Table VII, work-release programs were in operation in the community for women from the following prisons: California, New York, Florida (six (6) separate facilities), Illinois, Massachusetts, North Carolina (two (2) programs), Georgia, Washington (Study-Release), and Nebraska. These centers were located in major cities to which many women would be paroled, although the numbers involved were usually small. In addition, 4 jails could send women to a community-based work-release center: Rikers Island, Duval County (Florida), San Diego, and Santa Rita Rehabilitation Center (Alameda County, California). The Washington program was unique in that the residential facility was located on a university campus.

For further details see Section VI. Community-based Programs: An Analysis, pp. 181-189.

SUMMARY

All of the prisons in our sample gave work assignments to inmates. In jails, work was often a privilege reserved for sentenced inmates. The nature of work assignments clearly reflected institutional needs; primary assignments included food services, institutional housekeeping and maintenance, with fewer assignments in prison industry (primarily laundry and sewing), medical infirmary tasks, and beauty shops. Less traditional work assignments were very few: fire watch in the Detroit House of Corrections and recreation assistant and teacher aides in Washington's Purdy Treatment Center.

In most of the moderate and small jails there was no system of work assignments. In the 14 jails where women worked, they were usually assigned to housekeeping, food services, laundry or mending, or those tasks typicallly carried out by trustees.

Prison job assignments were usually made as part of the classification process. In most institutions, inmates could state their preference for a particular job, although job openings, inmate ability, or security status would affect the final decision. Changing jobs could usually be accomplished through reclassification.

Clerical jobs were the most preferred by inmates. Factors which were found to make some jobs more attractive were higher pay rates, extra gain time, extra food from the kitchen, or access to contact with men. Prison industries continue to be dominated by "state use" regulations which prohibit goods produced from competititon with the free market. The most unique industry was found at Massachusetts' prison in Framingham, where male inmates operated a data processing center. However, the only female inmate involved at the time of our study worked as a receptionist there.

The 40-hour work week prevailed in most prisons, although inmates could divide this time between work and school. Pay ranged from zero to a high of $1.00 per hour in the Minnesota POPS Program.

Thus, it can be said that work assignments were oriented primarily toward institutional maintenance. Little concern was apparent for on-the-job taining or carryover into the community. Few non-traditional jobs were offered. Pay for even the most dull and tedious work in laundries and sewing factories offered little compensation.

Only ten prisons and ten jails had work-release programs for women, involving only 2% of the total prison inmates and 1% of jail inmates. In addition, nine prisons and four jails had work or study-release centers in the community to which women could be released. It appears that work-release is under-utilized for incarcerated women.

RELIGIOUS PROGRAMS

Of all program areas, a religious program was most likely to be found in the prisons and jails. Of 57 reporting institutions, only 5 small jails had no religious program available for women.

RELIGIOUS FACILITIES

All of the prisons and most of the jails had a specific area designated for religious services and activities.

Five institutions had separate buildings which were clearly designated as a chapel, 21 facilities had separate rooms designated for use as a chapel, sometimes with an altar or pews located off to one side of an auditorium or large common room. (These rooms were also used for other activities, such as movies.)

In 20 facilities where there was no special room for services, the dayroom or dining room was used. There were 6 institutions that had no area or room used for religious programs. Five of these were jails with small female populations; in Georgia women attended church on the grounds of the mental hospital where the prison was located. Although women in Nebraska also went to the community to church, services for maximum security women were held in the lobby of the living unit.

RELIGIOUS STAFF

Six prisons and twelve jails had at least one chaplain on a full-time basis. In addition to these positions, there were often part-time chaplains and other religious groups coming in from the community. Usually Catholic and at least one Protestant demonination were represented. In addition, Bedford Hills (New York) and Rikers Island had Jewish and Muslim services.

Another 18 institutions had regularly scheduled clergy who came in weekly or several times per week. Informal or occasional services were held in 9 of the institutions. These programs could consist of community religious groups or rotating clergy from different denominations coming in only on Sundays or for special holidays.

One small jail had no religious staff or space but religious services were broadcast over the intercom on Sundays. In several jails, Sunday services were available to men but not to women because the chapel was located on the men's side.

Table 3.6.1 Religious Staff and Services in Prisons

	Chapel	Chaplain Full-time	Chaplain Part-time	Regular Relig. Services	Pastoral Counseling	Religious Education	Family Liaison	Choir	Church Serv. in community	Church Volunteers	
California	Yes*	2	1	x	x	x	x	x	–	x	* multipurpose building
Texas	Yes	1	-	x	x	x	-	-	x	-	
Florida	Yes	3	3	x	-	x	x	x	x	x	
North Carolina	Yes	0	1	x	-	x	-	-	x	x	
Georgia	No	0	1	x	x	-	-	-	*	-	* church services on grounds of hospital
New York	Yes	1	2	x	x	-	x	-	-	x	
Michigan	Yes*	0	3	x	x	x	-	x	-	x	* auditorium used
Washington	Yes	1	-	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Illinois - Dwight	Yes*	0	3	x	x	x	x	-	-	x	* converted dayroom
Massachusetts	Yes	0	2	x	x	x	x	-	x	x	
Indiana	Yes	0	4	x	-	x	-	x	-	x	
Illinois - Vienna	Yes	2	-	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	
Colorado	Yes*	0	1	x	x	x	x	-	-	x	* altar in auditorium
Nebraska	No*	0**	1	x	x	x	x	-	x	x	* services in community **ministers from community
Minnesota	Yes*	0	1	x	x	x	x	-	x	x	* converted basement room
Minnesota POPS	Yes	0	1	x	x	-	x	-	x	-	

x indicates program exists - actual number participating unknown

Table 3.6.2 Religious Staff and Services in Major Jails

	Chapel	Chaplain Full-time	Chaplain Part-time	Regular Relig. Services	Pastoral Counseling	Religious Education	Family Liaison	Choir	Church Serv. in community	Church Volunteers	
Sybil Brand	Yes	1	–	x	x	x	x	-	-	x	
Rikers	Yes	1	2	x	x	–	x	-	-	x	
Cook County	Yes	1	–	x	x	x	x	-	-	x	
Harris	Yes	1	–	x	x	x	x	x	-	x	
Dallas	Yes	1	1	x	x	-	x	-	-	x	
Dade	No	0	1	x	-	-	-	-	-	x	

x indicates program exists - actual number participating unknown

RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES

In addition to religious services, 18 institutions had a large range of other religious activities including Bible classes, choirs, and pastoral counseling. In many jails and in some prisons, the chaplain or visiting clergy were the only source of counseling for inmates. Chaplains and/or church volunteers frequently served as liaison with the families of the women. In 20 institutions, religious activities were limited to visits and activities such as Bible Classes, conducted by volunteer groups. Sometimes inmates developed their own programs. A carryover of the program in Fulton County Jail (Georgia) was evident in the Georgia Prison, where women continued their own Bible study with Bibles given to them at the jail.

Church volunteers also provided non-religious services for incarcerated women. Some organized and provided special holiday dinners, brought in recreation equipment and arranged for singing groups, plays or lectures. They visited some of the inmates and/or would correspond with them. Sometimes they provided stationery and stamped envelopes, books, candy, or on occasion, the volunteers would conduct arts and crafts, knitting or crocheting sessions, or provide individual tutoring.

SUMMARY

Religious programs were available in almost all institutions; only 5 small jails did not have a program. Five institutions had separate buildings designated as a chapel; 21 institutions had separate rooms designated for part-time use as a chapel. Six prisons and 12 jails had a full-time chaplain and most other institutions had at least a part-time chaplain or regularly scheduled clergy from the community. One small jail had no religious staff or space, but religious services were broadcast over the intercom on Sundays. Occasionally, men but not women could attend services in jail.

Eighteen institutions offered other religious services such as Bible study, choirs and pastoral counseling. Clergy or church volunteers frequently served as liaison with the families of inmates. Church volunteers also visited inmates, conducted arts and crafts or counseling sessions and brought in personal supplies and special activities from the community.

RECREATION

Recreation--sports and leisure activities--has become a major element in the American way of life. The importance of recreation has been mentioned repeatedly as a way to release tension and to work off frustration. There is a particular need for adequate recreational opportunities for inmates, particularly in light of institutional diets, which often contain an excess of less expensive starchy foods. However, the value of sports as a recreational outlet for women has generally not been afforded the same importance as it has for men. It was not until 1975, for example, that colleges and universities began offering serious sports programs for women and financial support (scholarships) for those who participated.

Competitive sports are only one aspect of a recreational program. Not all inmates have the interest or ability to participate in baseball or basketball or other such activites, yet some physical activity is necessary for one's general well being. Less vigorous options are certainly available, including dance, calesthenics, and body movement, plus games such as ping pong, bowling and shuffleboard.

Recreation also includes leisure activities to refresh the mind or satisfy the creative spirit -- drama, painting, writing and music, as well as table games such as checkers, cards and dominoes.

RECREATIONAL FACILITIES

Space is obviously one of the critical elements in delimiting what is or is not available. The limitation imposed by the lack of a gymnasium or playing field is obvious. What is often not as readily apparent is how the space that is available also defines to a great extent the type of indoor, less-active recreational programs that will be available, and furthermore, how and by whom they will be utilized. At the same time, the fact that equipment and space are available does not ensure they will be used. For example, one prison with a separate gymnasium building reported no formal recreational programs.

In prisons and jails day rooms and common areas in the living units were frequently dominated by television, the most universally available recreational or free-time activity. Since no other space was available for board games or individual activities, the day room was generally the scene of a variety of activities competing above the shouts of "Quiet" from the television viewers. Only a few institutions permitted inmates to visit in each others' rooms and then only with the door open, so that the noise level was not much lower even then.

Jails are generally much more limited in the space available than are prisons, and television is often the sole means of passing time, other than reading and smoking.

In looking at the space constraints, consideration must be given to the size of the institution, the climate and other variables. Obviously, an institution located in a warm climate can utilize the outdoors for recreational programs almost year-round, while those institutions in the colder climates have severe winter weather to contend with. Even with all things considered, 42 of 57 institutions (jails and prisons) had some kind of area available for recreation. Three institutions had no space for recreational activities but did permit individual crafts, etc. Eleven institutions reported that they had no recreation program at all, although one of these had an exercycle.

Table 3.7.1 Recreational Facilities and Activities in Prisons

	FACILITIES			REGULARLY SCHEDULED ACTIVITIES						SPORTS[1]								
	Gymnasium or Recreation Bldg.	Exercise/ Recreation Room	Outdoor Recreation Area(s)	Arts & Crafts	Music	Dance	Exercise	Drama	Inmate Newspaper	Basketball	Volleyball	Shuffleboard	Baseball (Softball)	Ping Pong	Pool Table	Swimming	Other	
California	-	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	A	R	-	R	A	-	A	-	
Texas	x	-	x	x	x	x	-	x	-	R	R	A	R	-	-	-	x*	*skating
Florida	x	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	R	-	-	R	A	-	R	-	
North Carolina	x	-	x	x	-	x	-	-	-	A	R	A	-	A	-	A*	-	* off campus
Georgia	-	-	x	x	x	x	x	x	-	A	A	-	R	-	-	-	-	
New York	x	x	x	-	x	x	x	-	x	A	A	A	-	A	-	-	x*	*handball
Michigan	-	x	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	A	-	-	-	-	-	-	x*	*roller skating
Washington	-	x	x	x	x	x	x	-	x	-	A	A	R	A	A	R	x*	*bowling, bicycling, camping
Illinois - Dwight	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	A	A	-	-	A	A	-	x*	*roller skating, bowling
Massachusetts	-	x	x	-	-	x	x	-	-	R	R	A	R	A	-	A	x*	*bowling, tennis
Indiana	x	-	x	x	-	-	x	-	-	R	R	A	R	A	A	-	-	
Illinois - Vienna	x	-	x	-	x	-	x	-	x	R	A	-	R	A	A	-	x*	*rowboats, fishing, hiking
Colorado	x	-	x	x	x	x	x	x	-	A	R	A	-	A	A	-	x*	*croquet
Nebraska	-	x*	x	x	x	-	x	-	-	R**	R**	-	A	A	A	R**		*part of 1 dorm building **off campus
Minnesota	-	x	x	x	-	-	x	x	-	A	R	A	R	A	A	A	x*	*bicycling
Minnesota POPS	x	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	A	A	-	-	A	-	-	-	

[1] For Sports only, A = available, R = regularly scheduled.

Table 3.7.2 Recreational Facilities and Activities in Major Jails

	FACILITIES			REGULARLY SCHEDULED ACTIVITIES						SPORTS[1]							
	Gymnasium or Recreation Bldg.	Exercise/ Recreation Room	Outdoor Recreation Area(s)	Arts & Crafts	Music	Dance	Exercise	Drama	Inmate Newspaper	Basketball	Volleyball	Shuffleboard	Baseball (Softball)	Ping Pong	Pool Table	Swimming	Other
Sybil Brand	-	x	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	A	R	A	-	A	A	-	-
Rikers	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	-	-	R	R	A	R	R	A	-	-
Cook County	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	A	A	A	-	A	A	-	-
Harris	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	R	-	-	-	-	-	-
Dallas	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Dade	-	x	-	-	-	-	x	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	A	-	-

[1] For Sports only. A = available. R = regularly scheduled.

Of those with space available, eight prisons and one large jail, Rikers Island, had a gymnasium; in addition, all prisons had outside space available for recreation. Ten jails had an indoor exercise area and one or more outside areas. In some jails the outside area was a rooftop used for recreation; in five jails recreational space was limited to one indoor exercise room.

In a few jails where sentenced and unsentenced women are kept separate by law, separate outdoor areas have been developed for each group; however, it is more common to find a single area and separate schedules for its use by sentenced and unsentenced inmates. In some cases in the jails, the exercise area is also used by the male inmates. Because the number of males is much larger than the number of females, and since it is still widely believed that males need the physical activity more than females, the schedule for females is often very limited (one hour per week for sentenced women only).

RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES

In prisons and jails, a wide range of formal and informal sports and creative activities were available, although prisons had more regularly scheduled, supervised activites.

Of the formal, organized team sports, 32 institutions had volleyball, 20 had basketball and 15 had softball. Competitive sports with community teams or other institutional teams occurred on a regular basis in 10 institutions and occasionally in two others.

Swimming was available in 7 prisons (no jails), but only three prisons had any scheduled swimming activity. Exercise programs were available on a regular basis in 10 prisons and 5 jails. In three jails exercise programs were available occasionally.

Many informal sports such as ping pong, pool, badminton, shuffle board, roller skating, tether ball, and bicycling were available in the prisons, primarily on an informal basis with no leader but supervised by custodial staff. In one co-correctional prison, roller skating was popular because it was the only occasion when men and women inmates had permission to hold hands. Some of the jails had a few informal sports available, but because of limited space one finds either ping pong or pool indoors and badminton or volleyball outdoors.

More institutions had arts and crafts than any other form of recreation. Arts and crafts covered a large range of activities, such as painting, ceramics, macrame, photography, poetry writing, and book clubs. All of the institutions indicated that individual crafts were permitted although the materials (wool, paints, etc.) were not always provided. Twelve prisons and two large jails had formal arts and crafts programs.

In many small jails, material and instruction for arts and crafts were often provided by volunteers[1] from the community. Sometimes custody staff worked with inmates on crafts projects.

Regulations govern the use of knitting needles, crochet hooks and scissors in many places, but there is no uniformity in terms of what is permitted and what is forbidden; what is considered dangerous in one institution is freely available in others.

Music was another program found in 13 institutions, including activities such as band, guitar and chorus. There were 8 prisons with regularly scheduled programs, 3 led by staff, 3 by inmates, one by a volunteer, and one by a combination of staff and inmate. A few institutions had inmate led instrumental groups. Sybil Brand (Los Angeles County) had an inmate group called the Sybil Singers who performed in other jail facilities. The prison at Bedford Hills (New York) had a music teacher and a music room in the school building that included individual practice rooms. Music programs were sometimes a part of religious activities, generally choirs led by the chaplain, the inmates, or a group from the community. Dance programs were reported in 8 prisons and drama in 5 prisons.

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[1] The use of volunteers has both advantages and disadvantages in this area as well as most others. The administrators reported that volunteers add greatly to the scope of activities that can be provided, however they also reported that volunteers do not always show up regularly, that use of volunteers increased the security that must be available, and that the institution has limited control over the activities that are provided by volunteers.

In those institutions that had the widest range of activities available, the staff felt that the program was well utilized and highly valued by both inmates and staff. However, the lack of programs in most jails, would suggest that recreation is not a high priority item at the local level.

SUMMARY

Recreation facilities and programs are an essential element in promoting the physical well-being of inmates and relieving the tensions and frustrations of confinement. There is a particular need for adequate recreational opportunities for inmates, particularly in light of institutional diets, which often contain an excess of less expensive starchy foods. However, recreational opportunities for female jail inmates were extremely limited (often television was the only recreation available) due to lack of outside recreation areas and extremely small day rooms. While eight prisons and one large city jail had a gymnasium and all prisons had an outside recreation area, eleven institutions had no recreation program at all.

A wide range of formal and informal sports and recreation were available in some institutions, and every prison and large jail, except the Dallas County Jail in Texas, had some type of activity available. However, the fact that equipment and facilities are available does not ensure that they will be used (primarily because staff are not always available to supervise activities).

FOOD SERVICES

One of the most common complaints heard in women's prisons concerns the quality and quantity of food served. Our assessment of food service systems in prisons and jails found this to be true in almost every prison and jail in our sample. The most frequent complaint from women inmates concerning food was not that there was too little food, (although this was common) but that what food there was available had too much starch and that this had caused the women to gain weight. The second most frequent complaint was that the food is too monotonous and poorly prepared. In general, food in prisons was of slightly better quality and better balanced than that in jails, probably because several prisons had dieticians, and the food was prepared specifically for women and by women.

Inmates with specific dietary needs usually were accommodated by special diets ordered by the institution's physician. However, in eight jails, no arrangements were made for the special diet needs of inmates, including those who were diabetic. In fact, several food managers interviewed did not appear to have an understanding of the special diet needs of inmates with specific illnesses, such as diabetes.

In several institutions, food was prepared and brought to inmates in their cells via warming carts, which resulted in complaints about the food being particularly unpalatable because it was not hot enough. In one California jail, inmates received the same menu for lunch everyday: a bologna and cheese sandwich.

In most prisons, women inmates helped prepare, cook and serve food, bake bread or pastries, wash pots and pans, and, in some instances, help to plan menus. However, this was not the case in most jails, because these duties were performed by male inmates. It must be noted, however, that the food services area in prisons was most often the least favored work assignment. In jails, some women might prefer it to doing nothing at all.

Prison staff and inmates frequently were reported to eat the same food, although several institutions reported that staff ate for lunch what inmates typically would have at dinner.

Prison inmates generally had access to snacks, usually from the commissary, but jail inmates typically had very limited access to snacks or no access at all.

Probably the most unusual food services were found at the Bedford Hills Prison (New York) and Sybil Brand Institute (Los Angeles County, California). At the Bedford Hills Prison, inmates were permitted to order fresh fruits, cold cuts and vegetables from an independent grocery store. Inmates were permitted to cook from 4 p.m. to 8 p.m. and could make toast at anytime. Sybil Brand Institute attempted to balance menus with ethnic dishes and "soul food". The food manager at Sybil Brand indicated that the lights were never out in his kitchen.

SUMMARY

The importance of food services in a correctional institution is considerable, primarily because food is one of the few sources of variety in a highly structured environment. The most frequent complaints about institutional food were that it was too starchy, monotonous and poorly prepared. A balanced diet is particularly important in an environment which typically offers very limited opportunities for exercise and, in the case of jails, often little opportunity for fresh air and sunshine. Most women in institutions gain weight and this problem affects the inmate's self-image.

Most institutions accommodate the special diet needs of inmates, but eight jails made no such provisions whatsoever. The impact of this negligence could result in fatality to certain inmates with chronic diseases, such as diabetes or heart conditions.

In most prisons, female inmates cooked and served food; in jails, male inmates typically prepared the food on the men's side. Staff and inmates frequently were reported to eat the same food. However, it was often the case that staff ate for lunch the same food that inmates would get for dinner.

SUMMARY PROGRAM INDICES

We have examined each program area individually, but we would like to know the composite effect of these programs in an institution. We shall look at the institutions on two composite indices - a Range of Services Index and a Program Participation Rate.

RANGE OF SERVICES INDEX

A Range of Services Score was computed for each of the following program areas: medical services, counseling, education, vocational education, recreation, and religious services. Each program was rated on a four-point scale ranging from the broadest scope of services (score = 4) to a very limited scope (score = 1). The services themselves have already been discussed in each program section. If a program did not exist at all, the score assigned for that area was 0. Scores from all of the above program areas were combined for a Range of Services Index. The range for prisons went from 10 in Michigan to 24 in Washington, with an average score of 18. For the major jails the average Services Index was 12, ranging from 7 in Dallas to 20 at Rikers Island.

Within a given institution, there tended to be a moderate degree of consistency among programs; e.g., if a full range of services existed in several program areas, the remaining areas were likely to have at least a moderate level of services. This pattern applied to moderate and low ranges as well. The institutions grouped in the following manner:

PRISONS

High	Moderate	Low
Washington	Texas	North Carolina
New York	Minnesota	Illinois (Dwight)
California	Massachusetts	Indiana
Illinois (Vienna)	Colorado	Georgia
Florida	Nebraska	Michigan
		Minnesota POPS

JAILS

High	Moderate	Low
Rikers Island	Dade County	Dallas County
Sybil Brand		Harris County
Cook County		

Range of Services varied with the physical adequacy of the facility. Of the eight institutions with a high Range of Services, four were high in Physical Adequacy and four were average; all five prisons and one jail with average services were average in adequacy; of the six prisons and two jails with low services scores, three were average and five were low on Physical Adequacy. There appears to be a consistent but not dramatic relationship between the overall space and condition of a facility and the range of programs and services available.

A more clear-cut relationship is found by simply tallying the types of common areas found in an institution and correlating the sum with the Range of Services Index. In the major jails there was a very high correlation (r = .886) between the kinds of space available for common use (such as dayroom, classroom, auditorium, dining room, infirmary, etc.) and the range of services available. In prisons the correlation was not so high (r = .644). Had we had an actual count of all classrooms, dayrooms, etc., the correlation for prisons would probably have been greater. It is also noteworthy that all of the high service prisons were of the campus design, with separate buildings built for specific programs. These findings support our premise that space for programs is generally a prerequisite for program development.

Range of Services was not clearly related to size or to cost per inmate. The latter is not surprising when we realize that staff account for the highest proportion of perational costs, and most staff are custody staff providing 24-hour coverage. Large institutions, theoretically, require a greater range of services to meet the diverse needs of several hundred inmates; in reality, some of the larger institutions had very limited program resources.

PROGRAM PARTICIPATION RATES

Program participation rates were derived from data supplied by each institution on the numbers of women involved in work assignments, work-release, vocational education, remedial and high school education and college classes. These programs typically account for 8 - 12 hours of an inmate day. Numbers of women involved were converted to rates by dividing by the institutional population. Since inmates were often involved in more than one program area, the total participation rate usually exceeded 100%. (See Tables 3.8.1 and 3.8.2). The rates ranged from a low of .52 in Michigan where no educational programs were operating at the time of the study to a high of 1.78 in Vienna (Illinois) and 1.89 in New York.

Table 3.8.1 Program Participation Rates in Prisons

	Work Assignments	Work Release	Vocational Education	Remedial Courses	High School Courses	College Courses		TOTAL
California	.68	0	.18	NA	.17	.15		1.18
Texas	.86	0	.08	.21	.37	.12		1.64
Florida	.52	(.002)	.28	.10	.13	.10		1.13
North Carolina	.56	.09	.11	.11	NA	0		.87
Georgia	.42	(.003)	.17	.06	.03	.06		.74
New York	.77	0	.36	.06	.46	.24		1.89
Michigan	.52	0	0	0	0	0		.52
Washington	.39	.09	.43	0	.07	.07		1.05
Illinois - Dwight	.81	0	.05	.72	.22	0		1.80
Massachusetts	.50	.13	.29	NA	.09	0		1.01
Indiana	.47	.01	.37	.09	.12	0		1.06
Illinois - Vienna	.33	.02	.54	0	.17	.72		1.78
Colorado	.59	.03	.44	.18	.05	.13		1.65
Nebraska	.64	.09	.63	.26	.09	0		1.71
Minnesota	.28	.03	.39	0	.10	.36		1.16
Minnesota Pops	.87	0	0	.13	.33	0		1.33

Table 3.8.2 Program Participation Rates in Jails

	Work Assignments	Work Release	Vocational Education	Remedial Courses	High School Courses	College Courses		TOTAL
Sybil Brand	.37	0	.06	NA	.08	0		.51
Rikers	.68	0	.06	NA	.27	.09		1.10
Cook County	.56	.05	.39	0	.19	.04		1.23
Harris	.15	0	.38	0	0	0		.53
Dallas	0	0	0	0	.15	.20		.35
Dade	.13	0	.05	.04	.16	0		.38

By examining the above tables, it becomes clear that participation across program areas varied greatly. In Vienna the high rate resulted from high participation in vocational education (.54) and college courses (.72) and despite a low work assignment rate (.33). New York had a high work assignment rate (.77) followed by academic education (.52), vocational education (.36) and college courses (.24). In Illinois (Dwight) the high participation rate reflected the fact that most of the women worked (.81) and were in remedial education (.72).

PROGRAM PARTICIPATION RATES

PRISONS

High	Moderate	Low
New York	California	North Carolina
Illinois (Vienna)	Indiana	Georgia
Illinois (Dwight)	Florida	Michigan
Nebraska	Washington	
Colorado	Massachusetts	
Texas	Minnesota	
	Minnesota POPS	

JAILS

High	Moderate	Low
Cook County	Sybil Brand	Dade County
Rikers Island	Harris County	Dallas County

At the lower end of the scale fell three prisons which tended to rank low on many variables - Michigan, Georgia, and North Carolina. However, there was no correlation between Program Participation Rates and the Range of Services Index. A possible explanation for this is that even where a variety of programs existed they often involved a very small percentage of inmates.

In relationship to the institutional indices of Autonomy and Normalization, the institutions scoring highest on those dimensions (Washington and Illinois - Vienna) also had the lowest work assignment rates (.28 - .39). This finding is consistent with the philosophical concepts of individual responsibility, decision-making, and independence which underlie high autonomy institutions.

Program Participation Rates for jails were much lower, with Cook County and Rikers Island, as usual, in the forefront. It must be remembered that in many of the jails, there were no programs at all.

SECTION IV. INMATE PROFILE

It is estimated that about 15,000 women are incarcerated in the United States at any given time, nearly 6,000 in state prisons, some 8,000 in local jails, and about 1,000 in federal prisons. The information in the following section was collected from an overall 25% sample of inmates in 15 state prisons and 42 county jails in the 14 sample states.[1] When weighted statistically, the 1,607 actual cases represent a total of 6,466 women, 3,744 in state prisons and 2,722 in local jails during the Spring of 1975. Inmates were sampled in all of the institutions described in the previous chapters with the following exceptions: Detroit House of Corrections (Michigan's equivalent of a prison), Cook County Jail (Illinois), Dupage County Jail (Illinois), Minneapolis Workhouse (Minnesota), and Laramie County Jail (Wyoming). In addition, the following jails were included for purposes of inmate sampling only: Tarrant County (Texas), Broward County (Florida), Pinellas County (Florida), Palm Beach County (Florida), and Orange County (Florida). The sampling design did not include community-based programs.

The inmate information is organized in an additive sequence beginning with basic variables such as ethnic distribution and age to establish some of the definitions and conventions used in later, more complex, analysis of the data. Criminal justice status, as defined on page 7, is often used as a control variable to show the differences between women at various levels of incarceration. Each variable is presented first for the total sample; where significant differences exist in terms of any of the variables previously discussed, these will be presented and analyzed. In some sections, the reader will be directed to data in subsequent sections especially where significant relationships were noted.

The sequence is, of course, arbitrary and should be viewed merely as a convenience for analyzing the complex inter-relationships between variables.

Since no control group is available for comparison with the inmate sample, wherever comparable data on variables exist for the female population at large, e.g. age, marital status, educational attainment, they will be included in the analysis in order to indicate, in even crude measure, how the inmates resemble their free-world counterparts.

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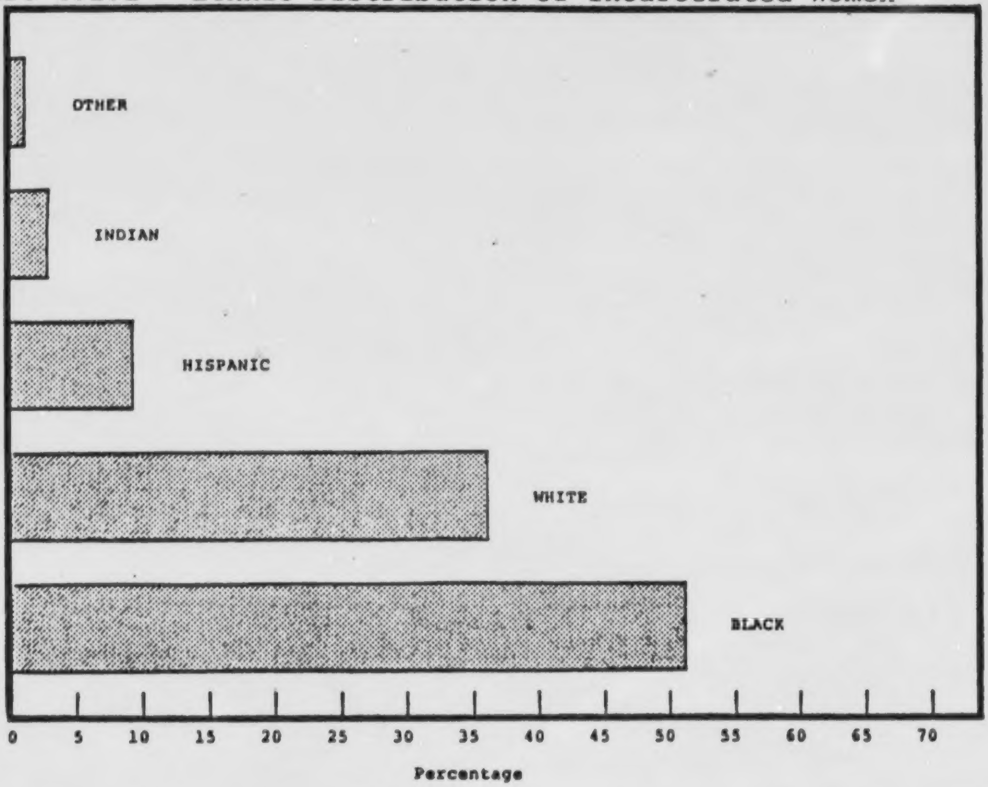
[1] For a complete description of the sampling methodology, see Appendix A, p. 224.

It must be emphasized again that although the states were selected in a purposive manner, the universe of prisons and a specific sub-population of jails were studied. Inmates were selected in a systematic representative sample within the prisons and jails. In strict statistical terms, the data represent only the 14 states in the study and should not be construed as an accurate national profile of the women offender.

ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION

When visiting a jail or prison for men, one is struck by the high percentage of minority inmates. A women's institution is no exception.

Chart 4.1.1 Ethnic Distribution of Incarcerated Women



While blacks comprised only 10% of the adult female population in the study states, half of the women incarcerated were Black. Even in those states where the percentage of incarcerated Blacks was small, it was disproportionately high in comparison to the general population. For example, in Minnesota, 17.7% of the inmates were Black, but less than 1% of the population was Black. Indians, who made up 0.4% of the population in the 14 states were 3.2% of the inmates. Conversely, Whites, who comprised 89% of the adult female population, accounted for only 35.7% of the incarcerated women.

The Hispanic group consisted mainly of Puerto Ricans in New York and Mexicans in Texas and California. The Cuban population in Florida was notably underrepresented in our study. Since the Bureau of the Census does not regard the Hispanic as an ethnic group but as a language group, it counts these persons as White or Black and then counts separately those with Spanish surname, who may or may not belong to the Hispanic minority group. This makes it difficult to compare ethnic populations.

Table 4.1.1 Ethnic Distribution by State in Numbers

	Ethnic Distribution in Numbers						
State	Black	White	Hispanic	Indian	Other	No Information	Total (N)
California	852	740	315	54	24	16	2001
New York	532	197	88	8	25	10	861
Texas	458	368	137	8	0	12	983
Illinois	105	44	0	3	5	2	159
Michigan	68	31	1	3	2	1	107
Florida	489	271	10	39	7	0	816
Massachusetts	41	40	4	4	1	0	90
Indiana	63	54	3	3	5	0	128
North Carolina	276	141	7	13	1	1	439
Georgia	245	182	9	22	0	0	458
Minnesota	12	43	1	10	0	2	68
Washington	57	138	0	18	4	0	217
Colorado	28	23	9	13	2	0	75
Nebraska	21	32	1	10	0	0	64
Total	3247	2306	586	207	75	45	6466

Table 4.1.2 Ethnic Distribution by State in Percentages

	Ethnic Distribution in Percentage						
State	Black	White	Hispanic	Indian	Other	No Information	Total (N)
California	42.6	37.0	15.7	2.7	1.2	0.8	(2001)
New York	61.8	22.8	10.2	0.9	2.9	1.1	(861)
Texas	46.6	37.4	13.9	0.8	0.0	1.2	(983)
Illinois	66.0	27.7	0.0	1.9	3.1	1.3	(159)
Michigan	63.6	29.0	0.9	2.8	1.9	0.9	(107)
Florida	60.0	33.2	1.2	4.8	0.9	0.0	(816)
Massachusetts	45.5	44.4	4.4	4.4	1.1	0.0	(90)
Indiana	49.2	42.2	2.3	2.3	3.9	0.0	(128)
North Carolina	62.9	32.1	1.6	3.0	0.2	0.2	(439)
Georgia	53.5	39.7	2.0	4.8	0.0	0.0	(458)
Minnesota	17.7	63.2	1.5	14.7	0.0	3.0	(68)
Washington	26.3	63.6	0.0	8.2	1.8	0.0	(217)
Colorado	37.3	30.7	12.0	17.3	2.7	0.0	(75)
Nebraska	32.8	50.0	1.6	15.6	0.0	0.0	(64)
Total	50.2	35.7	9.1	3.2	1.2	0.7	(6466)

According to the Census, 6% of the adult females in the 14 states were Spanish; while 9.1% of the inmates called themselves Hispanic. New York was the only state with a notable over-representation of Hispanic inmates, 10.2% compared with 4% in the state population, but similar to the 11% in New York City alone in 1971.[1]

The comparison with state figures is not perfect. Although the felon population is theoretically drawn from the entire state, the majority of felons come from urban areas, and in these areas minorities comprise a greater proportion of the population. The jail inmates in our sample also come from larger, metropolitan counties. By comparing the percentage of Black adults in the major metropolitan areas in our study,[2] we found that it exceeded the statewide percentage by an average of 3.3 percentage points. It was only in certain inner cities, such as Atlanta, Detroit, and Chicago that Blacks comprised one-third to one-half of the total population, and less than that when only adults were considered.

Since no data were available on female arrests by race, we cannot say whether Black women were arrested at a much higher rate than Whites.

Table 4.1.3 Ethnic Distribution by Criminal Justice Status

	Criminal Justice Status					
	Unsentenced		Misdemeanants		Felons	
Ethnic Group	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Black	708	54.5	664	48.8	1866	49.8
White	396	30.5	531	39.0	1379	36.8
Hispanic	131	10.1	105	7.7	350	9.3
Indian	38	2.9	47	3.4	123	3.3
Other	27	2.1	15	1.1	33	0.9
Total	1300	100.0	1361	100.0	3751	100.0

Unsentenced women were slightly more likely to be Black, 54.5% compared with the overall 50.2% of all inmates. The question must be raised whether Blacks were charged with more serious crimes or whether Black women had more problems getting bail or release on their own recognizance. Offense data indicated that Black women were more often charged with and convicted of violent crimes than other ethnic groups. (See Table 4.10.14)

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[1] Source: Employment Profiles of Minorities and Women in 20 Large SMSA's, 1972, U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, July 1974.

[2] Ibid.

SUMMARY

Minorities, particularly Blacks, were overrepresented in the inmate population when compared with ethnic distributions in the sample states. Even when one considers that more inmates come from large metropolitan areas, where the proportion of Blacks in the population is higher than the statewide average, the percentage of Blacks is still disproportionately high.

AGE DISTRIBUTION

The age groupings in Table 4.2.1 were developed not solely for the sake of convenience, but because certain ages mark milestones for women in terms of what society expects of them and what they expect of themselves.

At age 18, the legal transition to adulthood begins. What was considered intolerable (and often illegal) prior to that time, is suddenly more acceptable. Although for many women education ends with high school, the demands of the labor market for more highly skilled workers have extended the years of (permissible) economic dependence often well past the legal age of adulthood. However, between 18 and 21, the maturing process is expected to be completed, and by age 25, a woman is likely to have made the transition to the wife/ mother role.

The age of 30 has been a mythical turning point for women. Our youth oriented society, bolstered by the media's preoccupation with beauty, has made aging a particularly traumatic experience for many women. The physical aging process is coupled with a decreasing set of responsibilities for childrearing, and by 35, many women begin to experience what has aptly been called "the empty nest syndrome." Between 35 and 40, the transition is usually complete, and although most women maintain primary responsibility for household management throughout their lives, the time required to accomplish these tasks is substantially reduced, and she may then begin to explore new roles and enter, or re-enter, the labor market. Over 40 is often considered "over the hill," yet in reality, most women can expect between twenty-five and thirty productive years after this time.

Age distinctions are arbitrary, of course, yet in general they do define the parameters of acceptable behavior. Despite recent changes, and ever present exceptions to the rule, it is apparent that education, work experience, marital status and motherhood are very much age related.

The significance of these age groupings will not be readily apparent until successive sections in which age is cross-tabulated with other variables, nor will the significance of these cross-tabulations be truly evident until the discussion of the relationship between these variables and the program needs of the woman offender.

Table 4.2.1 Age Distribution by State

State				Age in Percentage				Total (N)
	<18	18-21	22-25	26-29	30-34	35-39	40+	
California	0.0	12.3	29.2	21.8	18.5	6.2	12.0	(2001)
New York	3.1	21.4	28.6	15.3	11.3	11.1	9.1	(860)
Texas	1.2	16.4	22.6	18.9	17.0	13.6	10.4	(983)
Illinois	0.0	24.3	26.0	28.3	10.3	5.8	5.2	(159)
Michigan	1.4	34.5	28.7	18.9	8.3	6.8	1.4	(104)
Florida	0.3	22.2	22.9	17.2	16.8	9.0	11.5	(809)
Massachusetts	1.6	20.1	47.1	16.9	10.1	4.2	0.0	(90)
Indiana	0.0	16.4	20.0	30.7	6.5	8.0	18.4	(128)
North Carolina	4.9	19.2	30.9	10.5	8.7	10.1	15.7	(439)
Georgia	2.0	24.9	21.2	13.8	17.5	5.9	14.8	(458)
Minnesota	0.0	22.9	18.3	15.6	14.5	9.3	19.4	(68)
Washington	0.9	21.9	30.7	11.8	18.3	7.8	8.6	(217)
Colorado	0.0	22.7	24.0	19.6	16.8	15.5	1.5	(75)
Nebraska	0.0	41.3	27.0	7.9	9.5	11.1	3.2	(63)
Total	1.2	18.4	26.7	18.2	15.5	8.8	11.1	(6454)[1]

The age distribution of incarcerated women is shown in the totals of Table 4.2.1. Almost 65% of the women are under 30 years of age, a much larger percentage than the 40% in the general population.

The median age of both unsentenced women and misdemeanants was 24, whereas the median age of felons was 27. There are very few juveniles in jails and prison (Table 4.2.1). Six states had no juveniles incarcerated in adult institutions, but in North Carolina 4.9% of the inmates were under 18, as were 3.1% in New York. The upper age limit for felons ranged from 38 years in Massachusetts to 64 years in New York and Florida.

The State of Nebraska had the youngest inmate population: 65% of all female inmates in that State were between 18 and 25 years of age. This was nearly twice the proportion of inmates between 18 and 25 years of age in other states. In contrast, Minnesota had a much older inmate population: 29% of all women inmates were 35 and older.

The following charts present a graphic representation of the age distribution of the four major ethnic groups compared to the total sample population. Table 4.2.2 indicates the percentage distributions by ethnic group.

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[1] Where totals are less than 6466 it is due to missing data which includes non-responses, ambiguous responses and uncodable responses. In all subsequent tables, the explanations given for Table 4.2.1 will apply. In some tables, "missing data" is included as a separate entry to illustrate the small number of non-responses.

Table 4.2.2 Age Distribution by Ethnic Group

	Age in Years in Percentage							
Ethnic Group	**<18**	**18-21**	**22-25**	**26-29**	**30-34**	**35-39**	**40+**	**Total (N)**
Black	1.5	19.3	25.7	19.6	17.1	7.1	9.7	(3237)
White	1.1	17.2	28.6	15.6	12.8	10.7	14.0	(2303)
Hispanic	0.5	14.7	25.1	26.5	16.0	9.0	8.1	(586)
Indian	0.0	20.3	25.6	5.7	17.3	16.7	14.4	(207)
Other	0.0	32.8	27.7	14.3	16.0	4.2	5.0	(120)
Total	**1.2**	**18.4**	**26.7**	**18.2**	**15.5**	**8.8**	**11.1**	**(6454)**

Whites and Indians were overrepresented in the older age groups. Both Whites and Indians over 35 were more likely to be incarcerated than the other ethnic groups of the same age. This related directly to the increased incidence of murder (often of the husband) among Whites and Indians over 35.

Chart 4.2.1 Age Distribution - BLACK

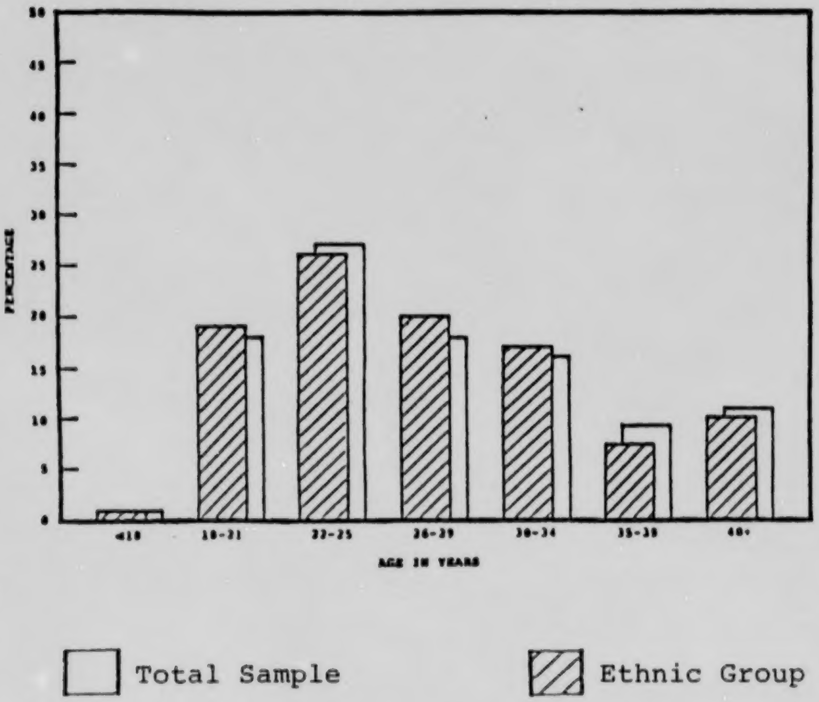


Chart 4.2.2 Age Distribution - WHITE

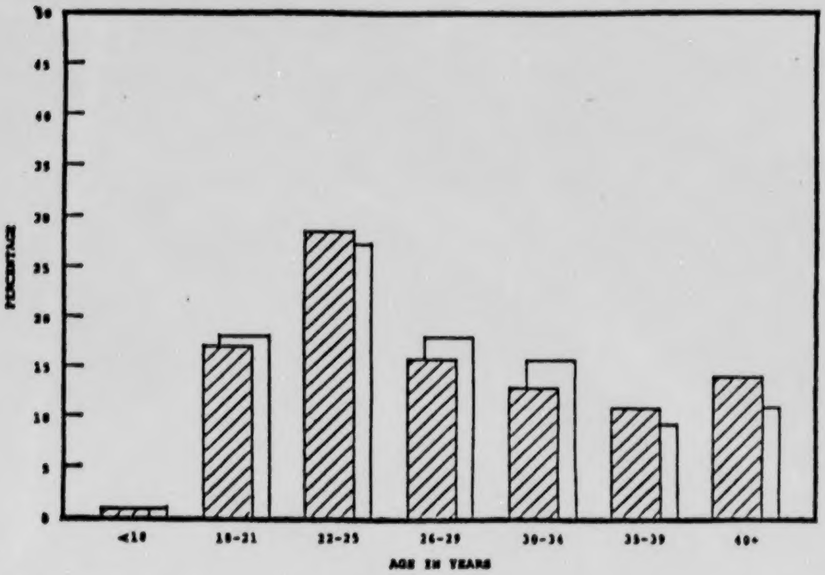


Chart 4.2.3 Age Distribution - HISPANIC

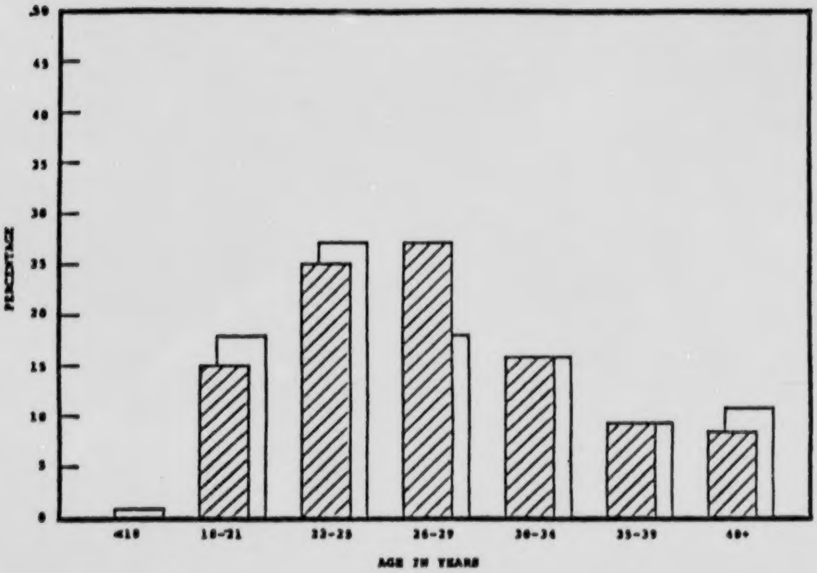
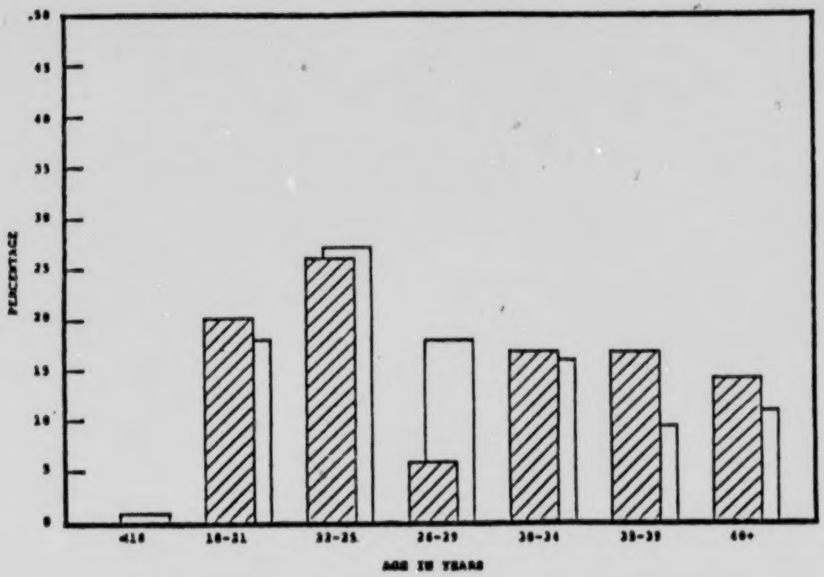


Chart 4.2.4 Age Distribution - INDIAN



SUMMARY

Most of the women in institutions are young: two-thirds are under thirty years of age, whereas only two-fifths of the women in the general population are under thirty. Black and Hispanic women were considerably younger than White women in institutions.

MARITAL STATUS

Since a woman's social and economic standing is still measured in large part by that of her husband, and since an intact marriage is presumed to offer a measure of stability to the partners, we would expect incarcerated women to be less stable on this dimension than other women. In fact, this proved to be so.

Table 4.3.1 Present Marital Status by Age

	Present Marital Status					
Age	**Single**	**Non-married**	**Married**	**Separated/ Divorced**	**Widowed**	**Total (N)**
16-25	39.2	23.6	16.6	18.3	2.3	(2985)
26-34	22.9	18.3	22.5	30.3	6.0	(2174)
35+	6.0	8.2	23.1	44.4	18.3	(1276)
Total	27.1	18.7	19.9	27.6	6.7	(6447)

Only 19.9% of the women were presently married, (compared to 60% of all adult women in the United States); 27.6% were separated or divorced; 6.7% were widowed; and 18.7% were in a non-married relationship, that is, living with a boyfriend or a common-law husband.[1] Another 27.1% of the women were single. Recent census information indicates that in 1975, 40% of the women in the United States between 20 and 24 years of age were single; 39% of those in our study who were 25 or younger were single, reflecting the general trend.

That marital status is directly related to age comes as no surprise. The younger women were more likely to be single or in non-married relationships; women 35 and over were more likely to have been married, even though the marriage(s) may have been dissolved in one way or another.

A look at marital status by ethnic group revealed that Hispanic women were the most divergent. They were less likely to be married, more likely to live with boyfriends, and more likely to be divorced or separated than any other ethnic group. Almost one-third (31.0%) of all Blacks were single, whereas only one-fifth (19.2%) of all Hispanics were single. Whites were most likely to be widowed 8.4%, as compared to 5.9% for Blacks, 6.6% for Hispanic and only 2.9% for Indians. Interestingly, Hispanic women were twice as likely as Whites to be living with a boyfriend or a common-law husband, 25.5% as compared to 12.8%, respectively.

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[1] "Non-Married" relationships have largely been ignored by demographers. We assumed that our study population would not be adequately described unless we recognized the frequency of non-married liaisons. Our assumption was confirmed when about one-fifth of the women reported their marital status as living with a boyfriend or common-law husband , (even though many states do not recognize common-law marriage as a legal entity).

Table 4.3.2. Present Marital Status by Ethnic Group

	Present Marital Status in Percentage					
Ethnic Group	Single	Non-married	Married	Separated/ Divorced	Widowed	Total (N)
Black	31.0	22.1	18.3	22.7	5.9	(3243)
White	22.4	12.8	23.8	32.6	8.4	(2302)
Hispanic	19.2	25.5	12.2	36.5	6.6	(586)
Indian	27.1	13.9	22.4	33.7	2.9	(198)
Other	47.2	24.1	17.8	10.9	0.0	(73)
Total	27.1	18.7	19.9	27.6	6.7	(6402)

We were interested not only in a woman's legal status, but also in her living situation just prior to incarceration. Only 56% of the married women had actually been living with their husbands. This reduced to 11% the proportion of women with a marriage which might be called stable in a conventional sense. Of those currently widowed, 37% had been living with their husbands prior to incarceration, (a strong indication that they had murdered their spouses). About 30% of the single women had lived with relatives, most often their parents; 17% lived only with their children, 13% with a boyfriend, 14% with other friends, and another 14% lived alone.

In an effort to assess marital patterns over time, in contrast to current status, we identified several configurations. (See Table 4.3.3)

Conventional marital stability was the least common mode, only 8.8% having had a single marriage, while at least 32.7% had lived serially with two or more partners. Those designated "with boyfriend" may also have had serial arrangements.

Table 4.3.3 Marital Pattern by Ethnic Group

	Marital Pattern in Percentage					
Ethnic Group	**Single**	**With Boyfriend(s)**	**One Marriage**	**One Past Marriage**[1]	**Serial Relationships**[2]	**Total (N)**
Black	27.0	24.0	8.4	17.6	22.9	(3247)
White	15.6	14.3	10.1	13.5	46.4	(2306)
Hispanic	16.1	22.7	6.7	20.0	34.5	(586)
Indian	17.8	22.6	5.7	14.3	39.6	(207)
Other	39.8	29.7	12.7	4.2	13.6	(120)
Total	21.9	20.5	8.8	16.0	32.7	(6466)

[1] One marriage followed by divorce, separation, or widowhood.
[2] Includes two or more marriages or one marriage plus other non-marital living arranegements.

Among the major ethnic groups, Blacks were most likely to have been always single, while Whites were most likely to have had serial relationships.[1]

SUMMARY

Less than one-fifth of all inmates were married at the time of incarceration, and almost half of these married women were not actually living with their husbands. Only 14% of all single inmates were living alone at the time of incarceration. Most of the women had been married at least once, and approximately one-third of all inmates had been involved in serial relationships involving at least one marriage plus other non-marital living arrangements. Among the major ethnic groups, Blacks were more often single and Whites were most likely to have had serial relationships.

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[1] It is interesting to note that data on inmate mobility patterns indicated that higher rates of mobility in childhood were characteristic of inmates involved in serial relationships. (See section on Childhood Background, pp. 123-125.)

CHILDREN

The most consistent expression of concern for the incarcerated female offender relates to her status as a mother. If one poses the question "How does the female offender differ from her male counterpart?", the inevitable response is that she is primarily responsible for her dependent children. The most frequently quoted figure is that 80% of incarcerated women have children that they are responsible for. There are actually two parts to that statement: How many children had a woman given birth to? How many children under 18 years of age were living with the woman and consequently dependent on her prior to her incarceration?

CHILDREN LIVING AT HOME

In answer to the first question, 25.6% had never borne any children (N = 1655). In answer to the second: of those who had borne children (N = 4573), another 25.6% (N = 1171) did not have their children under 18 living with them prior to incarceration. This means that only 56.3% of the incarcerated women had one or more dependent children living at home, a much lower figure than the 80% figure most often quoted, though none-the-less significant.

Table 4.4.1 Maternal Status by State

	Maternal Status		
State	**No Children**$_a$	**One or More**$_b$	**Mean Number of Children**[1]
California	19.8	79.0	2.57
New York	32.1	66.3	2.23
Texas	23.9	74.8	2.07
Illinois	25.9	71.1	1.95
Michigan	28.0	72.0	2.27
Florida	27.0	72.2	1.95
Massachusetts	15.9	84.2	1.75
Indiana	25.5	74.6	2.21
North Carolina	24.6	73.8	2.30
Georgia	36.9	61.6	2.88
Minnesota	18.1	81.9	3.10
Washington	35.9	64.1	2.55
Colorado	24.0	76.0	2.82
Nebraska	37.5	62.4	2.05
Total	25.6	73.2	2.48

[1] Of those women who have children.

Note: Columns a and b do not always add to 100.0 because of missing data in some states.

The proportion of women who never had children varied by state. Nebraska, Georgia, Washington, and New York were higher than average on this variable, related in part to the higher percentage of young women (25 years or less) in those states. In Massachusetts, Minnesota, and California, the women were less likely to be childless. The relationship between age and maternal status does not hold up in Massachusetts, where 69% of the women were 25 or less but only 15.9% were childless.

Of those women who had children, the average number was 2.48, higher than the 2.18 average reported by the census for all families with children in 1973. The mean number of children of inmates ranged from a low of 1.75 in Massachusetts to a high of 3.10 in Minnesota.

Table 4.4.2 Number of Children by Age of Mother

	Number of Children in Percentage					
Age	None	One	Two	Three to Four	Five or More	Total (N)
<18	52.8	37.3	6.2	3.8	0.0	(76)
18-21	45.3	37.6	11.8	5.3	0.0	(1168)
22-25	29.2	33.6	19.4	16.2	1.6	(1716)
26-29	18.6	30.2	24.2	23.0	4.1	(1175)
30-34	15.0	23.3	19.5	25.8	16.3	(987)
35-39	15.6	9.0	16.5	27.1	31.8	(546)
40+	18.5	13.7	19.3	19.2	29.3	(712)
Total	25.9	27.9	18.5	18.1	9.7	(6380)

Whether a woman had any children and how many children she had were both related to her age group, the likelihood of both presence and number increasing with age.

Table 4.4.3 Number of Children by Ethnic Group

	Number of Children in Percentage[1]					
Ethnic Group	None	One	Two	Three to Four	Five or More	Total (N)
Black	24.4	29.0	17.8	17.8	10.9	(3217)
White	30.4	29.0	18.3	15.9	6.4	(2286)
Hispanic	15.7	20.2	21.5	30.5	11.9	(581)
Indian	26.0	14.2	23.5	19.1	17.2	(204)
Other	28.6	41.0	14.2	2.0	14.2	(105)
Total	25.9	27.9	18.5	18.1	9.7	(6393)

[1] Of all women in sample.

Racial differences were evident in family size. Whites were most likely to have no children and least likely to have three or more. The same is true in the general population. Hispanic inmates had the reverse pattern, while Indians were more likely to have five or more children than any other ethnic group.

Table 4.4.4 Number of Children Living with Mother Prior to Incarceration

	Number of Children in Percentage[1]					
Ethnic Group	None	One	Two	Three to Four	Five or More	Total (N)
Black	17.9	31.4	22.0	21.1	7.6	(2317)
White	33.9	38.7	15.1	10.7	1.6	(1551)
Hispanic	34.6	16.6	26.5	16.1	6.2	(486)
Indian	35.2	13.0	18.5	26.7	6.7	(142)
Other	15.6	53.3	13.0	0.0	18.2	(77)
Total	25.6	32.1	19.9	16.9	5.5	(4573)

[1] Of those women who had children.

To answer the question of child dependency, we shall look only at those women who ever had children (N = 4573). One-fourth of them did not have their minor children living with them prior to incarceration; almost one-third of the women were living with only one child; 22% lived with two children, and another 22% lived with three or more. Blacks were significantly more likely to have had their children living with them than the other major ethnic groups.[1]

This finding, in conjunction with racial differences in marital status, points up some striking differences between White and Black inmates and their similarities to their ethnic groups as a whole. White inmates appear to be more divergent from the White norm. Census data for 1973 indicates that 89% of White children under 18 lived with both parents, but only 56% of Black children did so.[2] Only one out of ten White families was headed by a woman compared with one out of three Black families. In other words, most White women with children live with their children and their husbands; Black women are more likely to be living with children but no husband.

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[1] Chi square = $<$ .001 on unweighted data.

[2] The figure of 89% seems high in light of divorce statistics, however census figures do not differentiate between the natural parents and step-parents in a two-parent family.

White inmates did not resemble the White norm; one-third of the women with children did not have their children living with them, and only 11% of the White women were living with husbands.

Prior incarceration of the mother doubled the incidence of children not living at home, from 16% for those women who had never been in jail or prison before to 33% for women who had previously served time. We do not know if this difference resulted from court action or voluntary relinquishment.

Regardless of prior incarceration, as the number of children increased, so did the probability that not all of the children would be living at home. This could be partly related to the age of the children but it is probably also related to the social and economic needs of larger families.

Table 4.4.5 Child Care Arrangements by Ethnic Group

	Source of Childcare in Percentage				
Ethnic Group	Husband	Woman's Parents	Other Relations	Other Persons/Agency[1]	Total (N)
Black	3.9	56.1	30.4	9.6	(2315)
White	16.6	28.0	34.1	21.3	(1480)
Hispanic	12.5	45.0	31.0	11.5	(468)
Indian	16.9	22.6	33.2	27.3	(138)
Other	7.9	46.1	19.7	26.3	(76)
Total	9.5	44.4	31.6	14.5	(4477)

[1] Includes friends and foster homes.

Ethnic differences in child care arrangements during the mother's incarceration were also significantly different.[1] Blacks were most likely to rely on their parents to care for their children and not on husbands or non-relatives; Indians and Whites were more likely to have their children living with their husbands or placed with non-relatives, including foster homes, although the majority of their children were also cared for by relatives.

There was a carry-over from prior living arrangements to current child care. If a woman had been living with her husband, he was twice as likely to assume care of the children

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[1] Chi square = $\leq$.001 on unweighted data.

(20% compared with 10%) of all arrangements; his parents were also more likely to become a resource. Women who had been living alone or with friends were more likely to have their children with foster parents or other non-relatives -- a condition which may have existed prior to incarceration.

The actual public cost of caring for children of inmates does not appear to be as great as other reports suggest. Many of the children would simply continue to receive welfare as they had before; some would be placed in foster homes; very few would be institutionalized except as a temporary measure at the time of the mother's arrest.

Despite widespread belief that women are less likely to be detained awaiting trial if they are responsible for taking care of children, we found no evidence to support this contention. Unsentenced women were almost identical to sentenced inmates in the numbers of children they had living at home. If having children does lessen the likelihood of incarceration, it may be operating at several levels of the criminal justice system.

SUMMARY

Contrary to popular belief, it is not true that 80% of all female inmates have children that they are responsible for. Our data showed that this is true for only 56.3% of the women offenders. One-fourth of all mothers did not have children living with them prior to incarceration.

Ethnic patterns were distinct. Black women were more likely to have had their children living with them prior to incarceration and to have left them with parents during the mother's incarceration. Whites had the fewest children; of those who were mothers, one-third did not have their children living with them prior to incarceration. Hispanic women were likely to have the largest number of children.

Unsentenced women were almost identical to sentenced women in the number of children they had living at home.

Prior incarceration greatly increased the chances that a woman did not have her children living with her, and as the number of children increased, so did the probability that not all of the children would be living at home with their mother.

INMATES AS WELFARE RECIPIENTS

The data on welfare supports the widely held perception that incarceration for crime is, in fact, related to poverty and social class. Over half of the incarcerated females had received welfare.

Differences exist from state to state and the patterns indicate, in some measure, that these differences may relate more to welfare policies than to the actual economic need or status of the individual.

Table 4.5.1 Prior Welfare by Ethnic Group and State

	Percentage within Each Ethnic Group[1]				
State	**Black**	**White**	**Hispanic**	**Indian**	**Total**
California	73.8	66.6	75.4	60.2	70.6
New York	67.4	52.4	37.0	*	60.9
Texas	57.8	15.9	50.0	*	40.6
Illinois	68.5	33.4	**	*	60.8
Michigan	66.9	50.2	*	*	61.4
Florida	48.6	30.6	*	67.8	43.0
Massachusetts	68.6	57.8	*	*	64.0
Indiana	53.4	31.9	*	*	45.2
North Carolina	62.0	17.5	*	*	46.6
Georgia	37.2	29.7	*	27.5	34.5
Minnesota	55.4	82.2	*	*	76.2
Washington	76.8	65.6	**	*	67.6
Colorado	65.3	27.8	*	*	56.3
Nebraska	52.4	31.2	*	*	40.6
Total	61.9	44.7	62.2	59.9	55.6

[1] See Table 3.1 for actual number in each ethnic group by state.

*Fewer than 20 cases in sample.

**No Hispanic women in sample.

The proportion of welfare clients ranged from a low of 35% in Georgia to a high of 76% in Minnesota. In the regional patterns which emerged, southern states were lowest in welfare participation (35%-47%), followed by the midwest (41%-56%), and topped by the northern, usually urban, states and California (61%-71%). Minnesota, although not urban, has long been in the forefront of social legislation. These regional differences raise interesting questions about welfare, poverty, and crime.

In Texas and North Carolina, Whites were the least likely of any group to have been on welfare, only 16% and 18% respectively, compared to 44.7% for all White inmates. Whites were generally less likely to receive welfare than all other ethnic groups.[1]

As expected, there was a direct relationship between the number of children inmates had and their receiving welfare, since most would qualify under programs geared to aid dependent children, not themselves.

There was also a tendency for women who had never received welfare to have been working prior to incarceration. Of those who had never been on welfare, 54% had been working; 39% of those who had once been on welfare were working. This pattern persisted regardless of ethnic group.

There was a slight but consistent relationship between marital history and receiving welfare. The percentage of women on welfare at some time in their adult lives was 49% for single women; 54% for those with one marriage; 56% for those living with a boyfriend; 58% for those with one terminated marriage; 62% for those with serial relationships.

Whereas 56% of the inmates reported receiving welfare as an adult, only 33% indicated that their families had received welfare when they were growing up. The relationship between childhood welfare and other variables will be discussed in the next section on Childhood Background.

SUMMARY

Over half of the incarcerated women had received welfare, Whites to a lesser extent than other ethnic groups. Strong regional patterns of welfare emerged, suggesting that high participation in welfare services might be more a reflection of extensive welfare systems in a state, than of the economic needs of women in our sample. Women with greater numbers of children were more likely to be recipients of welfare, since most would qualify for programs to aid dependent children, not themselves. Those without a history of welfare assistance were more likely to have been working prior to incarceration. Welfare participation was lowest for single women and highest for those involved in serial relationships. Finally, data did not support the belief that most inmates who received welfare had a childhood history of welfare payments to their families.

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[1] Chi square = $\leq .001$ on unweighted data.

CHILDHOOD BACKGROUND

The early years are often viewed as the crucible of crime. Broken homes, disorganized families, growing up on welfare, etc. are often cited as root causes of delinquency and criminality.

Table 4.6.1 Childhood Living Arrangements

	Primary Adult(s) Responsible in Percentage					
Ethnic Group	**Both Parents**	**Mother Only**	**Father Only**	**Other Relative**	**Other Persons[1]**	**Total (N)**
Black	41.5	38.3	3.4	14.1	2.7	(3232)
White	64.3	19.7	2.5	9.0	4.4	(2288)
Hispanic	48.9	36.2	3.4	10.1	1.4	(586)
Indian	49.5	26.3	4.1	9.5	10.7	(207)
Other	38.9	38.9	0.9	8.3	13.0	(108)
Total	50.5	31.1	3.0	11.7	3.6	(6421)

[1] Includes non-relatives, foster parents, institutions.

Half of the women (50.5%) came from two-parent families, 31.1% lived with mother only for most of their childhood, and 11.7% with other relatives. Only 3% lived with father only and 3.6% were with non-relatives, often in foster homes, rarely in institutions. While the percentage of two-parent families is lower than that of the population as a whole (approximately 90%), it is not nearly as low as one might expect from the literature. Whites, like their counterparts in society at large, were most likely to have lived with both parents (64.3%), while Blacks were least likely to do so (41.5%). Blacks and Hispanics were the groups most likely to live with their mother only or with other relatives. There was a disproportionate number of Indians (10.7%) who had lived with non-related persons.

Although our society has become increasingly mobile, we still assume that being uprooted from friends, school, and other familiar places during childhood may have some negative effects on social adjustment. We attempted to measure this by asking the women how many times they moved far enough away so they had to change schools. As shown in the totals (Table 4.6.2.), 29.4% of the women never moved, 44.5% moved one, two, or three times (in similar proportions for each), and 26.1% moved four times or more.

Table 4.6.2 Childhood Mobility by Living Arrangement

Living Arrangements	Number of Moves in Percentage None	1-3	4+	Total (N)
Both Parents	37.8	42.4	19.8	(3223)
Mother only	22.4	51.5	26.1	(1994)
Father only	22.7	49.1	28.1	(195)
Other Relatives	18.9	37.7	43.4	(748)
Other Persons	13.5	30.2	56.2	(222)
Total	29.4	44.5	26.1	(6382)

The number of times a woman moved as a child was significantly related to her living arrangement.[1]

Living with both parents provided the most stability, while living with other relatives or non-related others resulted in the most changes of residence. In the two latter groups, the women may have been shuttled back and forth from one relative to another or from one foster home to the next as children. However, we must emphasize that only 7% of the women had such unstable childhoods.

Table 4.6.3 Childhood Mobility by Ethnic Group

Ethnic Group	Number of Moves in Percentage None	1-3	4+	Total (N)
Black	31.8	48.0	20.2	(3214)
White	27.1	39.3	33.6	(2290)
Hispanic	31.9	46.9	21.1	(586)
Indian	17.3	28.9	53.8	(206)
Other	11.5	60.4	28.1	(64)
Total	29.4	44.5	26.1	(6360)

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[1] Chi square = $\leq .001$ on unweighted data.

Childhood mobility was also significantly different by ethnic group, with Indians and Whites most likely to have moved four or more times, 53.8% and 33.6% respectively compared to the overall rate of 26.1%.[1]

Childhood living arrangements were significantly related to the women's assessment of their financial status.[2]

Table 4.6.4 Childhood Financial Status by Living Arrangement

	Childhood Financial Status in Percentage				
Living Arrangements	**Never Enough Money**	**Enough Money**	**More Than Enough Money**	**Ups and Downs**	**Total (N)**
Both Parents	23.9	59.4	15.8	1.0	(3222)
Mother only	50.1	42.4	7.5	0.1	(1997)
Father only	36.7	52.6	10.7	0.0	(195)
Other Relatives	45.1	46.2	6.1	2.7	(750)
Other Persons	44.9	35.0	20.1	0.0	(218)
Total	35.6	51.4	12.2	0.8	(6382)

Women raised by both parents were most likely to have had enough or more than enough money in their childhood family (59.4% and 15.8% respectively) compared to 42.4% and 7.5% for those women who lived only with their mothers. Over half (51.4%) reported that they had enough money during childhood.

Having enough money was obviously and significantly related to whether one received welfare.[3] Of the women who had received welfare as a child 58% felt they had never had enough money compared to 25% of the non-welfare recipients.

Receiving welfare was significantly related to race.[4] Whites were less likely to have been on welfare as children, 23% compared with 39% for Hispanics, 43% for Blacks, 35% for Indians, and 28% for other ethnic groups.

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[1] Chi square = $\leq .001$ on unweighted data.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Ibid.

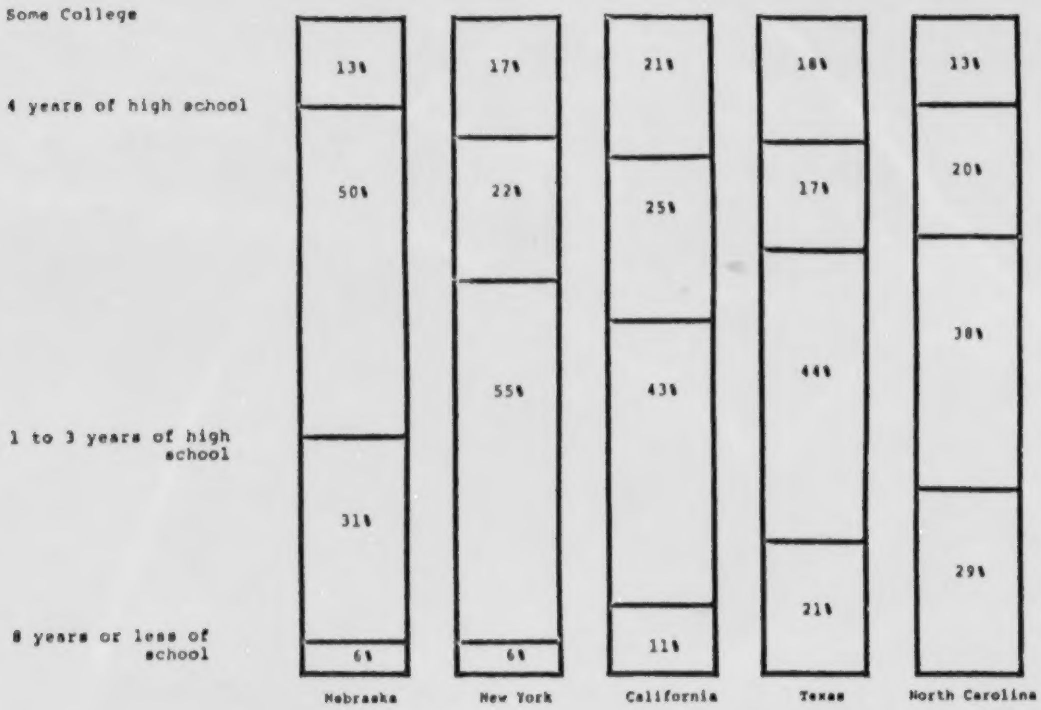
SUMMARY

Incarcerated women do not have as much instability in their backgrounds as current literature would have us believe. Half of the women in our sample came from intact homes, and almost one-third of them had never moved during childhood. Over half (51.4%) reported that they had enough money during childhood. Only 7% of the women sampled had experienced extremely unstable childhoods which involved frequent changes in living arrangements. Indians and Whites had significantly higher mobility rates than women inmates in general.

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

Incarcerated women are often described as uneducated, yet four out of ten women (41.4%) had a high school education or better. However, 44.7% dropped out of high school before finishing, and 14% had only gone to elementary school. These latter groups do comprise a majority and are, therefore, the focus of attention.

Chart 4.7.1 Educational Attainment in Selected States



The educational level of women inmates was strongly determined by the state in which they lived. Looking at women in prison and jail is like holding a mirror up to the educational system of a state. Although incarcerated women tended to be less educated than women as a whole, their educational level related directly to the statewide median. In states where the median school years completed by women 25 years and over in

1970[1] was 12.2-12.4, the proportion of inmates with a high school diploma or more was 45%-67%; where the median was 12.1 years, the percentage was 35%-40%; where the median was below 12 years, the percentage of high school graduates or better was 33%-37%.

Table 4.7.1 Educational Attainment by State

	Years of Education Completed in Percentages					
State	8th grade or less	Some High School	High School Graduate	Some College	College Graduate	Total (N)
California	10.7	42.6	25.5	18.0	3.3	(2001)
New York	6.0	54.7	22.1	16.2	1.2	(846)
Texas	21.0	43.6	17.2	16.7	1.5	(974)
Illinois	10.9	53.2	16.8	19.1	0.0	(159)
Michigan	6.7	58.5	13.5	20.3	1.0	(106)
Florida	20.4	41.9	22.1	13.4	2.3	(816)
Massachusetts	7.4	25.9	45.5	16.9	4.2	(90)
Indiana	9.5	50.8	32.4	6.3	1.0	(127)
North Carolina	28.6	38.4	20.2	8.7	4.2	(439)
Georgia	17.2	46.0	26.0	10.3	0.5	(458)
Minnesota	14.5	40.2	28.6	15.1	1.5	(68)
Washington	7.0	44.0	20.7	28.3	0.0	(217)
Colorado	3.0	52.2	22.5	16.8	5.5	(75)
Nebraska	6.3	31.2	50.0	10.9	1.6	(64)
Total	14.2	44.7	23.1	15.8	2.2	(6440)

Among inmates at the extremes of educational attainment, regional differences are very apparent. Massachusetts, California, Washington and Nebraska had the highest educational level, while three of four southern states had the lowest. Chart 4.7.1 graphically displays the variation in educational backgrounds of women incarcerated in selected states; Table 4.7.1 presents the data for all states. The proportion of inmates with only an elementary education ranges from 3% in Colorado to 28.6% in North Carolina; of those with some high school from 25.9% in Massachusetts to 58.5% in Michigan. The interaction of proportions within each state must be noted. Massachusetts and Nebraska have the most high school graduates, 45.5% and 50% respectively, but Massachusetts goes on to have 21.1% at the college level compared with 12.5% for Nebraska. Washington appears to be below average in high school graduates (20.7%) but exceeds all other states with 28% of the women at the college level.

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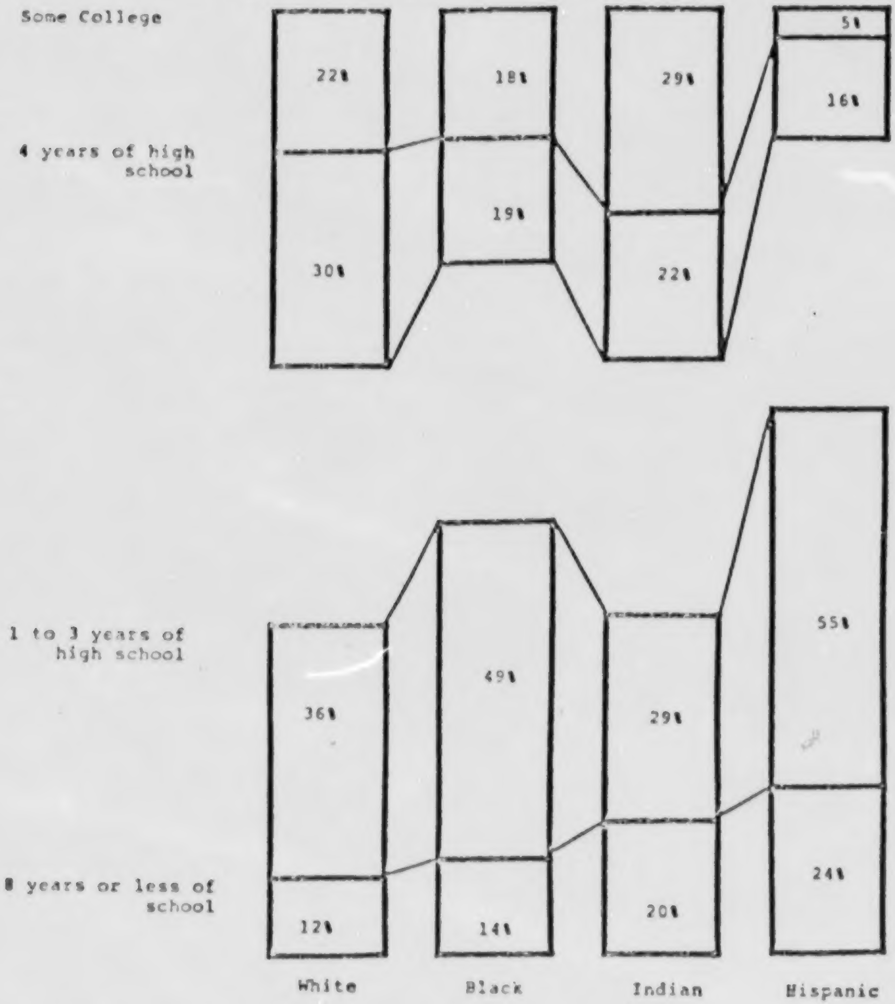
[1] Source: Digest of Educational Statistics, 1974 Edition, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1975.

Educational level was significantly related to ethnic group.[1] Chart 4.7.2 indicates the proportions which comprise each part of the educational dichotomy. Whites and Indians were better educated, followed by Blacks, with the Hispanics notably behind the other groups. The Hispanics were the most likely to have only an elementary education, the most likely to have not finished high school, and the least apt to have graduated from high school or to attend college. This finding applied to all subgroups - whether Puerto Ricans in New York, or Mexicans in Texas and California.

Chart 4.7.2 Educational Attainment by Ethnic Group



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[1] Chi square = $\angle$.001 on unweighted data.

Table 4.7.2 Educational Attainment by Age

Age	Years of Education Completed in Percentages					
	8th grade or less	Some High School	High School Graduate	Some College	College Graduate	Total (N)
16-25	11.0	49.0	23.2	15.9	0.8	(2981)
26-34	12.0	44.2	23.9	17.5	2.4	(2174)
35+	25.3	34.9	21.7	12.8	5.3	(1273)
Total	14.2	44.7	23.1	15.8	2.2	(6440)

Educational level of inmates was somewhat related to age. Older women were overrepresented at the extremes - 25.3% of women 35 and over had completed 8th grade or less compared with 14.2% of the total, but 5.3% of this group had graduated from college compared with 2.2% of the total. Geographic differences were often striking. In Florida, Georgia and North Carolina 40% of the women 35 and over had 8 years or less of education, however the same age group also had the greatest percentage of college graduates in California.

When educational level was dichotomized at the point of high school graduation - graduate versus non-graduate, no age-related differences were found overall. But in Georgia and North Carolina there was a dramatic shift; only 17% of the women 35 and over had finished high school, but 42% of the women 25 and under were high school graduates. In New York the reverse was found, where the proportion of graduates declined from 55% in the older group to 34% in the 25 and younger group.

SUMMARY

The educational attainment of the women, as measured by their years of schooling is not as low as we expected; over two-fifths of all women inmates had at least a high school education; only 14.7% had only gone to elementary school. There were strong statewide and geographic differences in educational attainment, thereby suggesting that educational attainment is highly related to the nature of statewide educational systems. In fact, educational attainment of inmates in each state was directly related to the statewide median. Whites and Indians were best educated and Hispanics were the least educated, regardless of their geographic location. Older women were generally less educated than younger women, with California and New York the notable exceptions to this pattern.

PRIOR VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Since the mid-1960's vocational training has become the major focus of many correctional agencies, and in some quarters it is regarded as the major means of rehabilitation. In the 1970's, vocational programs in women's institutions became the target of attack on the basis of the narrow range of programs available, almost all of which were in traditional, low-paying, female occupations.

There are several assumptions underlying the criticism of current programs, one, that the women had no prior training or job skills, and two, that training in traditional occupational skills was not meeting the needs of the population.

In the sample population, 43.3% (N = 2801) of the women who responded to this question reported having had some vocational training prior to their current incarceration. Of these, 75% had received their training in vocational schools, 17% in a correctional institution, and 8% in some other setting.

State differences were reflected in vocational training along the lines already discussed in the education section. In Georgia and North Carolina fewer than one-third of the women had any prior vocational training, 28% and 31% respectively. In the State of Washington, 60% of the women had received prior training.

Following the trend for education, Hispanics had the least vocational training, 32.3% compared with 43.3% for the total sample.

For all women with prior training, the major training areas were in the following occupations:

Clerical - 33.5%
Cosmetology - 12.5%
Nurse's Aide - 10.6%
Para-Medical[1] - 8.8%

The remainder were scattered across various other occupations.

In total, 65% of the women who had been trained received their training in so-called traditional occupations, primarily by choice since 83% got their training in the community.

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[1] Includes Licensed Vocational or Practical Nurse, Medical Technologist, Dental Assistant, etc.

In order to measure the desirability of her training from the woman's viewpoint, we related her training occupation to her desired occupation, that is, what job she would like to have in the future.[1]

Table 4.8.1 Job Aspirations by Vocational Training

	Occupation Desired in Percentage					
Training Occupation	**Professional/ Managerial**	**Semi-Professional**	**Clerical/ Sales**	**Personal Services**	**Blue Collar**	**Total (N)**
Professional/ Managerial	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	(15)
Semi-Professional	37.2	36.3	13.1	5.6	7.8	(355)
Clerical/Sales	15.5	25.5	42.0	10.1	6.9	(887)
Personal Services	23.1	22.1	11.8	35.7	7.4	(638)
Blue Collar	7.6	18.8	16.1	4.4	53.1	(321)
Total	20.6	25.1	24.7	15.9	13.8	(2216)

By inspecting Table 4.8.1 we find training and aspirations merge on a diagonal line running from upper left to lower right. The agreement between prior training and aspirations is 100% for the professional/managerial class, 36.3% for semi-professionals, 42% for clerical/sales, 35.7% for personal services, and 53.1% for blue collar occupations. The lower rate for semi-professionals reflects their desire to become professionals (37.2%), for example, from Licenced Vocational Nurse to Registered Nurse. Many of the women whose prior training was in non-professional occupations aspired to better occupations. For example, 41% of all women with prior training in clerical/sales aspired to semi-professional and professional/managerial occupations. Almost half of the blue collar workers (46.9%) aspired to other, primarily higher occupations.

Those in personal services (such as beauty operators) sometimes aspired to manage their own shop and would thus move to the professional/managerial class (23.1%). Occupational desires did not always conflict with prior training but did indicate strong upward strivings in occupational status among many women - more indicative of the American dream for professional status than the women's liberation goal of non-traditional jobs for women.

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[1] For precise job definitions, see Appendix D, pp. 255-257. Blue Collar includes unskilled, semi-skilled, and skilled occupations.

Table 4.8.2 Best Job Held by Vocational Training

	Best Job Ever Held in Percentage					
Training Occupation	Professional/ Managerial	Semi-Professional	Clerical/ Sales	Personal Services	Blue Collar	Total (N)
Professional/ Managerial	59.0	0.0	0.0	30.3	10.7	(24)
Semi-Professional	10.2	35.9	21.2	22.7	9.9	(331)
Clerical/Sales	4.7	7.1	63.0	13.2	12.0	(788)
Personal Services	5.0	8.6	21.7	43.1	21.6	(612)
Blue Collar	5.1	10.9	17.6	6.1	60.2	(277)
Total	6.4	12.7	36.9	22.9	21.1	(2032)

Similar levels of agreement exist between the training occupation and the best job a woman ever held (in her judgement). It appears that some women with professional training had not yet worked at that level (59% compared with 100% in Table 4.8.1). Six out of ten women with training in clerical or blue collar fields had their best job in the same occupational area.

These data shed some positive light on the job-relatedness of vocational training. However, they do not lend support to the theory that training which leads to jobs also keeps women out of prison and jail.

SUMMARY

Vocational training for the women in the sample was concentrated in four major areas: Clerical, Cosmetology, Nurse's Aide and Para-Medical fields. Slightly more than two-fifths (43.3%) of the women reported receiving some vocational training, most of which took place in the community prior to the present incarceration. Only 17% of the women received their training in a correctional setting. Although many women worked in the same occupations for which they were trained and also felt that it was the best job they ever had, many women *did* aspire to higher occupations. In addition, it is clear that many women who were trained in specific occupations had been underemployed. But what is perhaps most notable is that many women had prior training in the same occupations that are typically taught in institutions.

WORK EXPERIENCE

Of all the recent changes in American society, perhaps none has had more dramatic impact or stirred up as much controversy and debate as women's rising rate of participation in the labor force. The total number of women working has actually risen very gradually over the last 30 years, from about 3 out of 10 women, in 1947, to the present figure of 4 out of 10.

The dramatic shift that captures the attention of demographers and is reported in the media, occurs primarily among married women, especially those with children.

The factors underlying the changes which are occurring are beyond the scope of this study, but one major social issue must be mentioned in order to understand the particular problems of the female offender.

Despite the obvious fact that many women do work, and for the same economic reasons as men do, the prevailing social ethic for women in our society has not been work (that is, paid employment), but housework -- including childrearing and maintaining the family. This "ideal" arrangement is certainly not available to all women, never-the-less, in terms of what society expects (and what most women have been conditioned to accept), working women face enormous conflicts regarding their dual role. To be a "good mother," one should stay home. On the other hand, if there is no one else to support one's children, a "good mother" must go out and work.

This paradox neatly sums up the dilemma of the incarcerated female who is told, in effect, that she not only may work, but that she ought to. Furthermore, in pursuit of sexual equality, women are currently faced with the challenge of getting jobs in traditionally male occupations in order to disprove myths and to earn more money as well. Against this background we shall look at the incarcerated woman as worker in the free world.

Almost all of the women (91.5%) had worked at some time in their lives, and 45.4% reported having worked in the two months prior to incarceration. Thus, they were slightly more likely to have been employed than women in general.

However, there were some striking differences by state. In New York, Illinois, Massachusetts and Minnesota the percent working prior to incarceration ranged from 26% to 34%. In Michigan, North Carolina, Washington, Nebraska and California the percent working prior to incarceration ranged from 35% to 49%. In Texas, Florida, Indiana, Georgia and Colorado the percent working prior to incarceration ranged from 50% to 61%.

This distribution of states bears a strong resemblance to the state patterns noted under welfare recipients (p. 121). Work rates were inversely related to welfare rates.

In states with low welfare rates, women are more likely to be employed as low-paid domestic or service workers. In states with more liberal welfare systems it seems that women may opt for AFDC (Aid to Families with Dependent Children) in order to conform more to society's expectations of a good mother -- she can get welfare and stay home and take care of her children, (an example of the conflicts noted earlier, and one which has far-reaching implications for program planning).

Of those women working prior to incarceration, Indians and Whites were most likely to have been employed (55% and 50% respectively), Hispanic least likely (27%), while Blacks reflected the overall total (45%). It may be remembered that the Hispanic group also had the lowest educational level, the least vocational training, the largest families, and the most divergent marital pattern. In an overall social profile, Hispanic women were distinct from other groups.

Women who were 35 years old or over were more likely to have been working than younger women, 57% and 42% respectively.

Marital status had little bearing on whether a woman was working, nor did the number of children, except in one category. Women with three or four children at home were the least likely to work, 37% compared with the overall 45%. However, of those women who had five or more children, 46% were working. Only in the northwest was there a direct relationship between having more children and not working. Of the women without children 49% did not work, 60% of those with two children, and 69% of those with five or more children did not work.

Although most of the women had worked, there was a direct correlation between education and work experience.

8th grade or less	Some High School	High School Graduate	Some College	College Graduate	Total (N)
86.1%	90.9%	92.2%	95.7%	98.6%	(6440)

The stereotype of the female offender as uneducated and unskilled, led us to expect that the jobs they had held would tend to cluster in the unskilled and service occupations. Since the Bureau of the Census one-digit occupational codes do not adequately differentiate skill levels within occupational categories, especially for women, we developed an expanded occupational code (see Appendix D) which took into consideration the educational and training requirements for each job, as well as status and salary levels.

Unfortunately, our job categories are no longer directly comparable to those used in the census. We have limited the services category to personal services, expanded the unskilled category to include jobs such as maids and laundry workers, and expanded the semi-professional class to include paraprofessionals.

Despite our different approach to occupational groupings, it is apparent that incarcerated women were more likely to have worked in unskilled or services jobs than the population as a whole. According to the 1970 census, 16% of all women 16 years and over worked in professional or semi-professional jobs, 4% as managers, 35% as clerical workers, 7% in sales, 17% in services, 2% in skilled occupations, 14% semi-skilled and 5% unskilled. The following table represents the inmates' work history in terms of the job held most often, the best job they felt they had ever had, and lastly the job they would most like to have some day.

Table 4.9.1 Occupational Experience and Aspirations

	Work Experience			
Occupational Group	Most Recent Job	Job Held Most Often	Best Job	Job Aspirations
Professional	0.7	0.4	1.3	16.3
Semi-Professional	5.9	3.8	7.3	19.5
Managers	3.0	0.5	3.3	2.8
Clerical	21.9	24.5	24.1	20.7
Sales	4.4	3.8	3.4	0.9
Personal Services	23.5	28.0	19.2	12.4
Skilled	2.6	1.6	2.2	3.3
Semi-Skilled	14.5	15.1	12.5	6.5
Unskilled	17.1	14.4	9.6	3.9
Other[1]	6.4	8.0	17.2	13.5
Total (N)	(2686)	(5916)	(5916)	(6466)

[1] Includes: no response, no specific type of job given, housewife.

In the first three columns, which represent actual experience, the most common jobs were in personal services, clerical, semi-skilled, and unskilled occupations. It is readily apparent that there is a steady movement upward from actual experience to preferred experience. Most of the women aspired to white collar jobs -- clerical (20.7%), semi-professional (19.5%), or professional (16.3%) -- followed by personal services (12.4%). Only 3.3% aspired to skilled occupations, which include the traditionally male, high paying crafts. Interest in sales work was extremely low, perhaps realistically, if bonding would be a problem for an ex-offender.

Ethnic differences in occupations reflected the national pattern for minorities to be overrepresented in lower status jobs. Blacks had worked more often in unskilled jobs, 24% compared with 14% for the total sample; 24% of the Hispanics were semi-skilled workers (usually in garment factories and canneries) compared with 15% overall; Whites and Indians were in personal services, 40% and 37% respectively compared to 28% overall; and Whites were more often clerical workers, 30% against 25% for the total sample.

Differences between ethnic groups diminished when best jobs were reported. Clerical jobs were ranked high by all groups, with personal services next. Of all the women, 43% had found their best jobs in these two areas. However, 20% of the Blacks and 27% of the Hispanics felt that they had never had a "best" job compared with 12% of the other women.

Age influenced work experience. Women under 35 worked primarily in personal service and clerical jobs; women 35 and over were almost evenly divided among personal services, clerical, unskilled, and semi-skilled occupations. Best jobs followed along similar lines.

The aspirational level was highest for women under 25, most of whom wanted to become clerical workers (27%), professionals or semi-professionals (22.6% each). For women 35 and over the proportions in the same three categories were 23%, 11%, and 21% respectively.

By looking at the relationship between job aspirations and best job ever held, we can see whether ambitions were built on real experiences. (See Table 4.9.2) Most of the professionals (83.5%) wanted to remain in that group. About half of the women who liked working in semi-professional, clerical, or skilled jobs hoped to continue, while 29.5% of the semi-skilled workers and 35% of those in services aspired to similar kinds of jobs. Staying within a category did not mean having the exact same job; often there was upward mobility implied (e.g., from typist to secretary); sometimes a total change was desired within a category (teacher's aide to LVN). The sales workers showed the least continuity between past experience and the future.

Table 4.9.2 Job Aspirations by Best Job Ever Held

	Job Aspirations										
	No Specific Aspiration[1]	Unskilled	Personal Services	Semi-Skilled	Sales	Clerical	Skilled	Semi-Professional	Managerial	Professional	Total (N)
Best Job											
Professional	0.0	0.0	2.5	0.0	0.0	2.5	0.0	11.4	0.0	83.5	(79)
Managerial	3.1	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.5	11.2	2.5	23.9	31.0	26.9	(197)
Semi-Professional	6.3	0.2	5.8	1.1	0.0	5.1	1.1	49.7	3.0	27.8	(431)
Skilled	3.1	0.0	1.5	0.0	0.0	10.8	50.8	20.0	0.0	13.9	(130)
Clerical	5.3	0.3	4.9	2.5	0.9	49.4	0.5	18.9	3.7	13.6	(1424)
Sales	15.5	0.0	7.0	0.0	12.5	31.5	0.0	21.0	2.5	10.0	(200)
Semi-Skilled	12.2	1.6	8.3	29.5	0.4	16.1	4.1	13.3	0.1	14.4	(738)
Personal Services	7.4	0.7	35.0	3.3	0.4	12.3	0.9	19.4	3.3	18.1	(1133)
Unskilled	12.5	31.4	10.8	7.4	0.7	10.1	6.4	8.6	0.0	12.0	(567)
No Specific Job[1]	30.0	2.3	10.5	5.3	0.8	14.8	3.9	10.4	1.1	13.2	(1018)

[1] Includes: no response, no specific type of job given, housewife.

Where aspirations and experience did not mesh, the aspirations tended to move to higher status occupations, moving to the right on Table 4.9.2.

Since aspirations seemed to take off from past experience, it is not surprising that racial differences emerged. Hispanic women had the lowest aspirations -- their ambitions peaked in the clerical field (30%); in addition, 27% did not designate a specific job aspiration, twice the overall rate. Indian women aspired to semi-professional levels (25%), personal services (20%), and professional (18%). Whites had the highest ambitions - 22% each in professional, semi-professional and clerical; for Blacks the proportions were 18%, 19%, and 21% respectively.

The job held most often was directly related to education. Women with less than a high school diploma were most likely to have been blue collar or service workers; those who had finished high school were most often clerical workers.

Table 4.9.3 Job Held Most Often by Educational Level

Education Completed	Job Held Most Often Blue Collar	Personal Services	Clerical/ Sales	Semi-Professional	Professional/ Managerial	Total (N)
Less than 12th grade	37.0	41.5	17.9	3.6	0.0	(836)
High School graduate or more	21.6	19.7	50.2	6.1	2.3	(826)
Total	29.3	30.7	34.0	4.9	1.2	(1662)

However, in their desires for the future, the women were less constrained by their present educational level.

Table 4.9.4 Job Aspirations by Educational Level

Education Completed	Job Aspiration Blue Collar	Personal Services	Clerical/ Sales	Semi-Professional	Professional/ Managerial	Total (N)
Less than 12th grade	19.0	18.2	23.4	19.0	20.2	(3213)
High School graduate or more	11.6	8.7	27.4	27.7	24.5	(2352)
Total	15.9	14.3	25.0	22.6	22.1	(5565)

Those without a high school diploma were almost evenly divided between five occupational groups, even though some obviously require a higher level of education than the women have attained.

SUMMARY

Almost all (91.5%) of the women had worked at some time in their lives and almost half (45.4%) had worked in the two months prior to incarceration. They were slightly more likely to have been employed than women in general (45.4% as compared to 41%).

There were striking statewide differences in the proportion of women who had worked. Generally, the more extensive a statewide welfare system, the less likely a woman was to have worked. That is, in states with low welfare rates, women were more likely to work as low paid domestics or service workers. Conversely, in states with more liberal welfare systems, women were more likely to be on AFDC and staying home and taking care of their children.

Level of education was directly related to work experience; the higher a woman's education, the more likely she was to have worked. However, neither a woman's marital status not the number of children had much bearing on whether she was working.

As expected, incarcerated women were more likely to have worked in unskilled or service jobs than the population as a whole. The most commonly held jobs were in personal services, semi-skilled and unskilled occupations. However, over half of the incarcerated women aspired to white collar jobs. Interestingly, only 3.3% aspired to skilled occupations - which includes the traditionally male, higher paying crafts.

As expected, work patterns for minority women reflected national patterns: minorities were over-represented in low paying jobs. Older women were also more likely to have worked in lower skilled occupations whereas younger women more often worked in clerical and personal service occupations. This may be due to the national shift in recent years to these occupations as well as increasing opportunities for women. In addition, younger women generally had higher job aspirations than older women. It is important to note that job aspirations were in fact reality-based (i.e., based on actual past working experiences); many women in specific skill categories aspired to higher jobs in those same skill categories. However, significant proportions of women in all categories aspired to higher occupations.

OFFENSE DATA

As discussed in the section on criminal statistics, the popular portrait of the women offender is derived from nation-wide arrest statistics, yet according to data from the California Bureau of Criminal Statistics, only 20% of all arrests ever result in adjudication. This sifting process in the criminal justice system can be illustrated using statistics available for California in 1973: for every 10,000 adult women, 150 women were arrested; 15 were placed on probation, 10 were awaiting trial, 5 were sentenced to jail as misdemeanants and 1 was sent to prison as a felon. It is apparent that incarcerated women are a small subgroup of arrested women and must be viewed separately.

In terms of the overall criminal population, women accounted for 15% of all arrests (1973), about 14% of all probation (our sample), 5% of all jail inmates (1970 Jail Census) and 3% of all prison inmates (1973). Women account for such a small proportion of violent crimes that the sentences they receive are in general less severe than the sentences men receive.

Arrest and incarceration rates varied greatly by state. In the following Tables (4.10.1 and 4.10.2) the actual numbers are converted to rates based on population, in order to make the data comparable.

Table 4.10.1 Arrest Rates and Felony Incarceration Rates of Women by State

State	1973 Population Estimates of Females 18 and over	1973 Total Arrests of Adult Females[1]	Arrest Rate per 1,000[2]	1975 Sentenced Felons per 100,000 (N)	Rate[3]
California	7,220,000	109,124	15.1	(767)	10.3
New York	6,268,100	64,830	10.3	(422)	6.8
Texas	3,977,700	80,028	20.1	(721)	17.8
Illinois	3,875,100	47,538	12.3	(143)	3.7
Michigan	3,012,500	34,202	11.4	NA	NA
Florida	2,810,100	33,725	12.0	(541)	18.0
Massachusetts	2,076,700	18,115	8.7	(65)	3.1
Indiana	1,788,900	10,150	5.7	(73)	4.1
North Carolina	1,813,600	11,217	6.2	(352)	19.2
Georgia	1,634,000	18,756	11.5	(341)	20.6
Minnesota	1,300,000	7,363	5.7	(55)	4.2
Washington	1,160,000	8,908	7.7	(161)	13.6
Colorado	827,500	9,951	12.0	(55)	6.6
Nebraska	527,300	4,962	9.4	(47)	8.9
Total	38,291,600	458,859	12.0	(3743)	10.5

[1] Source: Uniform Crime Reports, 1973.

[2] Based on 1973 population estimates, Bureau of Census.

[3] Based on 1975 population estimates, Bureau of Census, extrapolated for females 18 and over.

Table 4.10.2 Incarceration Rates of Unsentenced Offenders and Misdemeanants by Counties within States

State	1973 Population Estimates of Study Counties Females 18 and over[1]	1975 Unsentenced Women per 100,000		1975 Sentenced Misdemeanants per 100,000	
		Number	Rate	Number	Rate
California	5,334,000	500	9.4	731	13.7
New York	4,043,000	257	6.4	183	4.5
Texas	1,625,000	198	12.2	64	3.9
Illinois	2,415,000	(35)[2]	1.4	(117)[2]	4.8
Michigan	1,312,000	60	4.6	NA	NA
Florida	1,686,000	142	8.4	126	7.5
Massachusetts	763,000	10	1.3	15	2.0
Indiana	452,000	28	6.2	27	6.0
North Carolina	215,000	17	7.9	70	3.8[3]
Georgia	359,000	45	12.5	70	4.2[3]
Minnesota	467,000	9	1.9	19[4]	4.1
Washington	482,000	31	6.4	25	5.2
Colorado	173,000	13	7.5	7	4.1
Nebraska	143,000	12	8.4	5	3.5
Total	19,469,000	1357	7.0	1459	6.5

[1] Based on 1973 Population Estimates; the latest available from the Bureau of the Census for individual counties, extrapolated for sex and age.

[2] Source: Phyllis Burke, A Descriptive Study of Adult Female Inmates in Cook County, Illinois, March 1975. This is the only place in this report where these figures are used.

[3] In North Carolina and Georgia, sentenced misdemeanants are sent to the prison from all over the state; therefore, the rate is computed on the statewide population. Small jails may hold some misdemeanants, thus increasing this rate.

[4] Includes 15 sentenced women in the Minneapolis Workhouse not included in the sample.

Chart 4.10.1 is a summary of the data in the previous two tables using the categories high (+), moderate (*) and low (-) to rank the data. The states are listed in descending order from highest to lowest in both arrest and incarceration rates.

Chart 4.10.1 Arrest and Incarceration Rates by State

State	Arrest Rates	Incarceration Rates Unsentenced	Misdemeanants	Felons
California	+	+	+	*
Texas	+	+	-	+
Florida	*	+	+	+
Georgia	*	+	*	+
Nebraska	*	+	-	*
Colorado	*	*	*	*
New York	*	*	*	*
Michigan	*	-	na	na
Illinois	*	-	*	-
North Carolina	-	*	-	+
Washington	-	*	*	*
Indiana	-	*	*	-
Minnesota	-	-	*	-
Massachusetts	-	-	-	-

(+) High (*) Moderate (-) Low

Texas and California had the highest arrest rates as well as high incarceration rates. In Texas, however, if a woman were sentenced, she was not likely to be sentenced to jail on a misdemeanor charge. This finding bears out the impressions of officials in Texas that few women do time at the local level. The opposite is true in California, where misdemeanants were incarcerated at a rate that was double the average.

Many factors in the criminal justice system could be at work here -- from pre-trial delays followed by credit for time served in Texas, to plea bargaining from felony to misdemeanor charges in California.

At the other end of the scale, Massachusetts had low arrest and incarceration rates, followed by Minnesota. Both Massachusetts and Minnesota have been leaders in the direction of community corrections; their small institutional populations reflect their correctional philosophy. Illinois however, was a different matter, ranking third in arrests, but low in incarceration of unsentenced offenders and felons. Since most of the women in the system came from Chicago (Cook County), and little could be identified there in terms of community corrections, one can only conclude that whatever was happening in Chicago, women were not going to prison at the expected rate.

The type of offenses for which women were incarcerated is summarized below:

Type of Offense

Criminal Justice Status	Violent	Property	Drugs	Other	Unknown	Total (N=6455)
Unsentenced	29.6	30.6	22.0	12.8	1.5	(1321)
Misdemeanants	11.4	41.1	20.2	17.5	2.4	(1379)
Felons	43.3	29.3	22.0	4.2	1.2	(3755)

Nearly 30% of unsentenced women were charged with crimes against persons, 22% were alleged drug offenders and 14% were forgers -- a total of 63% charged with felony-type offenses. In terms of offense patterns, unsentenced women more closely resembled sentenced felons than sentenced misdemeanants.

For those women already sentenced, length of sentence related directly to severity of offense,[1] ranging from the longest terms for murder to the shortest terms for prostitution.

Table 4.10.3 Length of Sentence by Offense

	Length of Sentence in Percentage					
Current Offenses	<90 Days	90-180 Days	6-12 Months	1-3 Years	3+ Years	Total (N)
Murder	0.0	1.1	1.8	2.4	94.7	(839)
Other Violent	2.0	5.4	4.5	18.7	69.4	(102)
Robbery	1.0	2.1	6.0	18.1	72.8	(558)
Assault	6.8	7.7	9.8	19.8	55.9	(283)
Burglary	10.7	16.1	2.8	27.1	43.3	(293)
Forgery/Fraud	5.6	6.1	11.0	39.2	38.1	(813)
Larceny	26.9	16.1	9.7	26.2	21.1	(561)
Drugs	6.3	10.2	9.0	16.5	58.1	(1108)
Prostitution	70.3	6.0	11.3	3.0	9.4	(114)
Other Non-Violent	28.1	24.3	10.4	15.6	21.6	(385)
Total	10.1	8.7	7.6	19.5	54.1	(5056)

Length of time incarcerated was in general accord with criminal justice status. As shown below, 72% of the unsentenced women had been in jail for one month or less; 83% of the misdemeanants had served three months or less; 57% of the felons had served less than one year. However, 11% of the unsentenced women had been in jail for four months or more, possibly awaiting further court action or appeals; 11% of the felons had already served three or more years, constituting a group of "long-termers."

Table 4.10.4 Actual Time Incarcerated by Criminal Justice Status

	Length of Incarceration in Months								
Criminal Justice Status	less than 1	1	2-3	4-5	6-11	12-23	24-35	36 or more	Total (N)
Unsentenced	45.8	26.4	16.5	6.7	2.6	1.4	0.2	0.4	(1221)
Misdemeanants	32.7	27.7	22.6	8.1	7.3	1.0	0.5	0.1	(1339)
Felons	2.1	6.3	16.1	11.6	20.6	22.7	9.6	11.0	(3593)

Not only are there differences from state to state on total arrest and incarceration rates, but the specific offense categories also vary widely in the proportion of women arrested and sentenced. Table 4.10.5 shows the total arrests for all offenses in the first column, and the actual number of women in our sample who are incarcerated by criminal justice status. Tables 4.10.6 through 4.10.10 show the totals within each offense category.[1]

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[1] The offenses included in each category are listed in Appendix C, p. 254.

Table 4.10.5 Arrest and Incarceration Figures by State: TOTAL OFFENSES

		Total Offenses		
State	**Arrest**	**Unsentenced**	**Misdemeanants**	**Felons**
California	109,124	500	731	767
New York	64,830	257	183	422
Texas	80,028	198	64	721
Illinois	47,538	[a]	16[b]	143
Michigan	34,202	60	36[c]	11[c]
Florida	33,725	142	126	541
Massachusetts	18,115	10	15	65
Indiana	10,150	28	27	73
North Carolina	11,217	17	70	352
Georgia	18,756	45	70	341
Minnesota	7,363	9	4	55
Washington	8,908	31	25	161
Colorado	9,951	13	7	55
Nebraska	4,962	12	5	47
Total	458,859	1321	1379	3755

[a] Unsentenced women were not included in the Illinois sample.
[b] Does not include misdemeanants serving sentences in jail.
[c] Does not include sentenced misdemeanants or felons in the Detroit House of Corrections.

Under each offense grouping the percentage represents that particular category as a proportion of total offenses for the state as shown in Table 4.10.5. For example, in Table 4.10.6 on Violent Offenses, 6.9% of all arrests of adult women in California were for violent offenses; 21.7% of the unsentenced women in the study counties were charged with violent offenses; 7.3% of the misdemeanants were violent offenders, and 41.4% of the felons. The greatest percentage of arrests in all states occurred in the "all other" category, 55.6% (See Table 4.10.10). The bulk of these arrests were for misdemeanors such as drunkenness, drunk driving, disorderly conduct, vagrancy, etc. Only 12.8% of the unsentenced women, 17.5% of the misdemeanants, and 3.8% of the felons were incarcerated for this type of offense.

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[1] All arrest data were in one way or another derived from FBI forms. In those states with their own information networks, the states supplied the figures; where data were not compiled at the state level, they came directly from the FBI.

The numbers incarcerated in most states are too small for further analysis. Minnesota had the lowest arrest rate in this group (39.3%), in contrast to Texas (74.6%) and Georgia (70.7%). In Minnesota drunkenness was not an offense, and this in itself accounts for some of the difference.

Table 4.10.6 Arrest and Incarceration Figures by State: VIOLENT OFFENSES

	Violent Offenses[1]							
	Arrests		Unsentenced		Misdemeanants		Felons	
State	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
California	7,477	6.9	108	21.7	53	7.3	318	41.4
New York	6,345	9.8	127	49.2	35	19.1	206	49.0
Texas	2,062	2.6	48	24.8	4	6.7	276	38.4
Illinois	3,298	6.9	[a]	[a]	3[b]	16.7[b]	83	58.6
Michigan	2,004	5.9	20	33.6	3[c]	8.2[c]	5[c]	48.2[c]
Florida	3,201	9.5	42	29.8	16	12.5	284	52.5
Massachusetts	1,083	6.0	6	57.2	0	0.0	31	47.1
Indiana	589	5.8	10	35.8	1	4.5	17	22.3
North Carolina	1,482	13.2	1	5.9	6	8.8	167	47.4
Georgia	1,022	5.5	16	36.3	25	35.6	163	47.6
Minnesota	314	4.3	1	11.1	0	0.0	17	31.0
Washington	388	4.4	5	17.3	7	25.1	34	21.4
Colorado	444	4.5	3	24.9	2	33.4	9	17.1
Nebraska	213	4.3	2	16.6	1	20.0	15	31.9
Total	29,922	6.5	390	29.6	156	11.4	1626	43.3

[1] Includes murder, robbery, assault and other violence against persons.

[a] Unsentenced women were not included in the Illinois sample.

[b] Does not include misdemeanants serving sentences in jail.

[c] Does not include sentenced misdemeanants or felons in the Detroit House of Corrections.

Property offenses (Table 4.10.7) were the next major category. Not only did they account for 23.6% of all arrests but also 3 out of 10 unsentenced women and felons, as well as 4 out of 10 misdemeanants were incarcerated for property offenses. In Minnesota nearly half of all arrests (48.3%) were for property crimes, in Texas and Georgia only 13% and 12% of the offenses were property-related. Regardless of arrest patterns, property offenders were well represented among incarcerated women. More than half of the felons in Washington and Minnesota fell into this category, but in New York the proportion was only 10.9%.

Table 4.10.7 Arrest and Incarceration Figures by State: PROPERTY OFFENSES

	Property Offenses[1]							
	Arrests		Unsentenced		Misdemeanants		Felons	
State	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
California	27,301	25.0	148	29.6	278	38.1	165	21.5
New York	12,342	19.0	54	19.6	86	47.2	46	10.9
Texas	10,316	12.9	83	41.6	32	50.5	227	31.6
Illinois	10,250	21.5	[a]	[a]	11[b]	66.7[b]	44	30.9
Michigan	10,401	30.4	26	44.4	25[c]	67.6[c]	7[c]	51.8[c]
Florida	13,071	38.8	44	31.1	47	37.5	146	27.0
Massachusetts	4,641	25.6	0	0.0	12	75.0	23	35.3
Indiana	2,858	28.2	8	30.0	11	43.1	18	24.9
North Carolina	4,315	38.5	7	41.1	27	38.2	136	38.6
Georgia	2,278	12.2	14	32.1	23	32.8	119	34.7
Minnesota	3,554	48.3	2	22.2	2	50.0	32	58.1
Washington	2,114	23.7	9	29.5	10	40.0	81	50.0
Colorado	3,466	34.8	5	41.7	1	16.7	33	60.4
Nebraska	1,313	26.5	7	58.3	2	40.0	24	51.1
Total	108,220	23.6	406	30.6	567	41.1	1100	29.3

[1] Includes larceny, forgery, fraud, embezzlement, and burglary.

[a] Unsentenced women were not included in the Illinois sample.

[b] Does not include misdemeanants serving sentences in jail.

[c] Does not include sentenced misdemeanants or felons in the Detroit House of Corrections.

While violent crimes (Table 4.10.6) accounted for only 6.5% of arrests, they accounted for 43.3% of the felon population; 11.4% of the misdemeanants, and 29.6% of the unsentenced offenders. North Carolina had the highest proportion of arrests for violent crimes among women (13.2%) followed by New York (9.8%) and Florida (9.5%). Only 2.6% of arrests in Texas were for violent crimes, 4.3% in Minnesota and Nebraska, 4.4% in Washington, and 4.5% in Colorado.

Drug offenders (Table 4.10.8) comprised 8% of all arrests, but 22.4% of unsentenced women, 20.4% of misdemeanants, and 22% of felons. In California the percentage of drug arrests was double the overall rate, and drug offenders were more likely to be incarcerated at all levels. In New York, which has mandatory felony terms for drug users, this group comprised 37% of the felon population. By contrast, in Minnesota where diversion and community corrections are strong, no women were serving sentences for drugs.

Table 4.10.8 Arrest and Incarceration Figures by State: DRUG OFFENSES

	Drug Offenses[1]							
	Arrests		Unsentenced		Misdemeanants		Felons	
State	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
California	17,696	16.2	153	30.6	229	31.3	220	28.7
New York	3,552	5.5	53	20.5	6	3.5	158	37.4
Texas	2,602	3.3	36	18.1	6	8.8	176	24.4
Illinois	2,526	5.3	[a]	[a]	3[b]	16.7[b]	12	8.5
Michigan	2,731	8.0	3	4.9	1[c]	3.8[c]	0[c]	0.0[c]
Florida	2,238	6.6	23	16.1	25	20.1	87	16.0
Massachusetts	1,475	8.1	3	28.6	0	0.0	8	11.8
Indiana	581	5.7	6	21.4	0	0.0	15	20.2
North Carolina	291	2.6	3	17.6	0	0.0	43	12.3
Georgia	974	5.2	8	18.1	7	10.0	23	15.5
Minnesota	363	4.9	1	11.1	0	0.0	0	0.0
Washington	540	6.1	7	23.4	3	12.5	37	22.6
Colorado	981	9.9	1	8.3	1	16.7	7	22.6
Nebraska	347	7.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	6	12.8
Total	36,897	8.0	297	22.4	281	20.4	826	22.0

[1] Includes both possession and sales.

[a] Unsentenced women were not included in the Illinois sample.
[b] Does not include misdemeanants serving sentences in jail.
[c] Does not include sentenced misdemeanants or felons in the Detroit House of Corrections.

Since prostitution is the most talked about, and the most decidedly female crime, data are presented separately in Table 4.10.9. Prostitutes accounted for 6.2% of all arrests, 3% of unsentenced women, 7.2% of misdemeanants and 0.4% of felons.[1] In some states, such as North Carolina, prostitution was rare, less than 1% of arrests; in Illinois one of every eight women arrested was charged with prostitution. (This helps explain the high arrest and low incarceration rates in Chicago.) These data do not indicate that prostitution is a major problem in itself. This is not to say that women in other offense categories were never prostitutes, but their current incarceration was not primarily a result of prostitution.[2]

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[1] In Indiana, a third time offense for prostitution is a felony.

[2] It must be noted that in large cities, misdemeanor offenders may be booked into and released from city jails which were not in our sample.

Table 4.10.9 Arrest and Incarceration Figures by State: PROSTITUTION OFFENSES

	Prostitution Offenses							
	Arrests		Unsentenced		Misdemeanants		Felons	
State	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
California	6,210	5.7	2	0.4	39	5.4	11	1.4
New York	2,667	4.1	11	4.4	23	12.6	0	0.0
Texas	5,350	6.7	6	2.9	7	11.0	0	0.0
Illinois	5,967	12.5	[a]	[a]	0[b]	0.0[b]	0	0.0
Michigan	3,176	9.3	4	7.3	6[c]	16.7[c]	0[c]	0.0[c]
Florida	1,102	3.3	3	1.9	4	3.2	0	0.0
Massachusetts	1,245	6.9	0	0.0	4	25.0	0	0.0
Indiana	360	3.6	2	8.6	2	8.9	3	4.7
North Carolina	54	0.5	2	11.8	6	8.8	0	0.0
Georgia	1,231	6.6	2	4.5	0	0.0	0	0.0
Minnesota	238	3.2	3	33.3	0	0.0	0	0.0
Washington	573	6.4	3	11.2	6	22.5	0	0.0
Colorado	274	2.8	0	0.0	1	16.7	0	0.0
Nebraska	82	1.7	1	8.3	1	20.0	0	0.0
Total	28,529	6.2	40	3.0	100	7.2	14	0.4

[a] Unsentenced women were not included in the Illinois sample.
[b] Does not include misdemeanants serving sentences in jail.
[c] Does not include sentenced misdemeanants or felons in the Detroit House of Corrections.

Table 4.10.10 Arrest and Incarceration Figures by State: ALL OTHER OFFENSES

	All Other Offenses[1]							
	Arrests		Unsentenced		Misdemeanants		Felons	
State	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
California	50,440	46.2	85	16.9	118	16.1	54	7.0
New York	39,924	61.6	13	4.9	20	11.0	12	2.8
Texas	59,698	74.6	19	9.8	13	20.7	13	1.8
Illinois	25,497	53.5	[a]	[a]	0[b]	0.0[b]	0	0.0
Michigan	15,890	46.5	4	7.4	1[c]	3.8[c]	0[c]	0.0[c]
Florida	14,113	41.9	27	18.8	34	26.7	19	3.5
Massachusetts	9,671	53.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	4	5.9
Indiana	5,762	56.8	1	4.3	12	43.6	14	18.6
North Carolina	5,075	45.2	3	17.6	25	35.3	6	1.8
Georgia	13,251	70.7	4	8.9	15	21.7	7	2.0
Minnesota	2,894	39.3	2	22.2	2	50.0	3	5.5
Washington	5,293	59.4	6	18.6	0	0.0	9	5.9
Colorado	4,786	48.1	3	25.0	1	16.7	0	0.0
Nebraska	3,007	60.6	2	16.7	1	20.0	0	0.0
Total	255,291	55.6	169	12.8	242	17.5	143	3.8

[1] Includes drunk, disorderly, vagrancy, possessing stolen property, parole violation, etc.

[a] Unsentenced women were not included in the Illinois sample.
[b] Does not include misdemeanants serving sentences in jail.
[c] Does not include sentenced misdemeanants or felons in the Detroit House of Corrections.

The following tables provide more detailed offense information by criminal justice status and state. The highest proportion in a given crime category is outlined to highlight variations and commonalities. Where the number of cases was 25 or less, outlining was omitted.

Table 4.10.11 Offense Type by State - UNSENTENCED

State	Murder	Other Violent Incl. Assault	Robbery	Burglary	Forgery/ Fraud	Larceny	Drugs	Prostitution	Other, Non-Violent	Total (N)
California	7.1	9.0	5.6	8.6	15.7	5.3	30.6	0.4	16.9	(500)
New York	19.0	6.9	23.3	0.7	4.7	14.2	20.5	4.4	4.9	(257)
Texas	5.8	9.2	11.8	2.9	20.4	18.3	18.1	2.9	9.8	(198)
Illinois										
Michigan	12.1	7.4	14.1	2.4	16.6	25.4	4.9	7.3	7.4	(60)
Florida	4.8	7.1	17.9	8.6	11.5	11.0	16.1	1.9	18.8	(142)
Massachusetts	28.6	0.0	28.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	28.6	0.0	0.0	(10)
Indiana	27.2	4.3	4.3	4.3	0.0	25.7	21.4	8.6	4.3	(28)
North Carolina	0.0	0.0	5.9	0.0	17.6	23.5	17.6	11.8	17.6	(17)
Georgia	13.8	13.6	8.9	0.0	18.3	13.8	18.1	4.5	8.9	(45)
Minnesota	0.0	0.0	11.1	0.0	22.2	0.0	11.1	33.3	22.2	(9)
Washington	0.0	0.0	17.3	6.1	11.2	12.2	23.4	11.2	18.6	(31)
Colorado	8.3	8.3	8.3	16.7	25.0	0.0	8.3	0.0	25.0	(13)
Nebraska	8.3	0.0	8.3	8.3	33.3	16.7	0.0	8.3	16.7	(12)
Total	9.7	7.6	12.3	5.3	13.7	11.6	22.4	3.0	12.8	(1321)

Table 4.10.12 Offense Type by State - MISDEMEANANTS

State	Murder	Other Violent Incl. Assault	Robbery	Burglary	Forgery/ Fraud	Larceny	Drugs	Prostitution	Other Non-Violent	Total (N)
California	1.1	3.7	2.5	9.6	12.3	16.2	31.3	5.4	16.1	(731)
New York	0.8	10.0	8.3	1.9	13.6	31.7	3.5	12.6	11.0	(183)
Texas	2.2	4.5	0.0	0.0	15.6	34.9	8.8	11.0	20.7	(64)
Illinois	0.0	16.7	0.0	16.7	0.0	50.0	16.7	0.0	0.0	(16)
Michigan	4.0	4.2	0.0	0.0	16.1	51.5	3.8	16.7	3.8	(36)
Florida	0.0	7.8	4.7	0.0	10.6	26.9	20.1	3.2	26.7	(126)
Massachusetts	0.0	0.0	0.0	26.6	0.0	46.7	0.0	26.6	0.0	(15)
Indiana	0.0	0.0	4.5	0.0	12.9	30.2	0.0	8.9	43.6	(27)
North Carolina	0.0	8.8	0.0	0.0	29.4	8.8	0.0	8.8	35.3	(70)
Georgia	12.8	10.0	12.8	10.0	10.0	12.8	10.0	0.0	21.7	(70)
Minnesota	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	25.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	50.0	(4)
Washington	6.3	12.5	6.3	0.0	25.0	15.0	12.5	22.5	0.0	(25)
Colorado	16.7	16.7	0.0	0.0	16.7	0.0	16.7	16.7	16.7	(7)
Nebraska	0.0	20.0	0.0	0.0	20.0	20.0	0.0	20.0	20.0	(5)
Total	1.8	5.9	3.7	6.3	13.4	21.4	20.4	7.2	17.5	(1379)

Table 4.10.13 Offense Type by State - FELONS

State	Murder	Other Violent Incl. Assault	Robbery	Burglary	Forgery/ Fraud	Larceny	Drugs	Prostitution	Other Non-Violent	Total (N)
California	18.3	9.8	13.3	6.5	14.6	0.4	28.7	1.4	7.0	(767)
New York	25.0	13.6	10.4	3.5	3.9	3.5	37.4	0.0	2.8	(422)
Texas	10.9	6.2	21.3	6.7	16.2	8.7	24.4	0.0	1.8	(721)
Illinois	23.9	5.1	29.6	5.1	21.9	3.9	8.5	0.0	0.0	(143)
Michigan	0.0	0.0	35.5	13.2	13.2	25.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	(11)
Florida	36.7	7.0	8.8	2.2	17.2	7.6	16.0	0.0	3.5	(541)
Massachusetts	23.5	11.8	11.8	5.9	11.8	17.6	11.8	0.0	5.9	(65)
Indiana	15.8	0.0	6.5	1.6	18.6	4.7	20.2	4.7	18.6	(73)
North Carolina	22.8	8.8	15.8	3.5	19.3	15.8	12.3	0.0	1.8	(352)
Georgia	35.7	9.3	2.6	10.2	18.4	6.1	15.5	0.0	2.0	(341)
Minnesota	12.5	4.2	14.3	12.5	41.4	4.2	0.0	0.0	5.5	(55)
Washington	9.5	0.0	11.9	4.8	22.6	22.6	22.6	0.0	5.9	(161)
Colorado	3.8	3.8	9.5	3.8	52.8	3.8	22.6	0.0	0.0	(55)
Nebraska	10.6	10.7	10.6	8.5	36.2	6.4	12.8	0.0	4.3	(47)
Total	21.7	8.1	13.5	5.5	16.7	7.1	22.0	0.4	3.8	(3755)

Offense categories varied by ethnic group. Four out of every ten Hispanic women (40.3%) were incarcerated for drug offenses compared with an overall proportion of 22.1%. Blacks were somewhat more likely than others to be incarcerated for murder (18.6%), robbery (13.8%) and assault (7.5%). The most common crimes for Whites and Indians were forgery/fraud (22.3% and 23.8%) and drugs (20.4% and 21%). In contrast, larceny was the most common property crime for Blacks (14.1%).

Table 4.10.14 Offense by Ethnic Group

	Ethnic Group in Percentage					
Current Offenses	**Black**	**White**	**Hispanic**	**Indian**	**Other**	**Total Percent**
Murder	18.6	12.9	8.6	13.4	8.8	15.3
Other Violent	2.3	2.2	0.9	3.0	0.0	2.1
Robbery	13.8	9.2	8.7	6.6	7.0	11.3
Assault	7.5	3.2	1.6	5.8	14.0	5.5
Burglary	4.2	6.2	12.7	6.0	2.6	5.7
Forgery/Fraud	11.3	22.3	8.2	23.8	29.0	15.6
Larceny	14.1	8.1	8.6	7.2	12.3	11.2
Drugs	20.2	20.4	40.3	21.0	18.4	22.1
Prostitution	3.1	1.3	2.4	0.7	7.0	2.4
Other Non-Violent	5.0	14.1	8.0	12.5	0.9	8.7
Total (N)	(3197)	(2273)	(573)	(207)	(116)	(6366)

Certain offenses were also age-related (Table 4.10.15). Larceny was more common among young women under 25 years of age (14.7%); robbery, burglary, and prostitution were the province of women under 35; but women 35 and over were the most likely to be in for murder (26.9%). Although drug users were fairly evenly distributed across age groups, regional differences were great. In the southeast only 1.4% of incarcerated women 35 and over were in for drugs; in the northeast 41% of this same age group were drug offenders, and in California 40%.

Table 4.10.15 Offense by Age

	Age in Percentage				
Current Offense	16-25 Years	26-34 Years	35+ Years	Total Percent	Total N=(6354)
Murder	10.5	15.3	26.9	15.3	(975)
Other Violent	1.7	2.6	2.4	2.1	(134)
Robbery	14.8	10.4	4.9	11.3	(720)
Assault	4.8	6.4	5.5	5.5	(350)
Burglary	7.3	6.0	1.6	5.7	(364)
Forgery/Fraud	14.4	17.1	15.5	15.6	(988)
Larceny	14.7	8.5	7.9	11.2	(715)
Drugs	19.7	24.1	24.2	22.1	(1403)
Prostitution	3.6	2.0	0.2	2.4	(154)
Other Non-Violent	8.5	7.6	10.9	8.7	(551)

When looking at marital patterns by offense, one finds a few modal tendencies. Women living with boyfriends were involved most often in drug offenses (27%) and larceny (16%); women in serial relationships were high in drug use (24%), and murder (19%); women with only one marriage were primarily forgers (24%); while women with one terminated marriage had the highest murder rate (24%).

Contrary to popular opinion, offenses did not seem to be related to the financial needs of children. Women were involved in property crimes whether they had children or not. However, women with five or more children were overrepresented in three offense groups - drugs, 29%, (total, 22%); assault, 12%, (total, 5%); murder, 21%, (total, 15%).

Several offenses were associated with educational level. The better educated (high school graduate or better) were more likely to be forgers, 19% compared to 13% for those who had not finished high school. The lesser educated were more likely to be incarcerated for murder, 18% opposed to 11% for the better educated.

The educational level of drug offenders, however, varied by area. Only in California were the lesser educated much more likely to be in for drugs (36% over 24%). In Texas and the southeast the reverse was true. In Texas 36% of the better educated were incarcerated for drug offenses compared with 16% of the lower group; in the southeast the percentages were 21% and 8% respectively.

Working had virtually no influence on offense behavior. By inspecting the two right hand columns, one can see that offense distributions are similar, whether the women were or were not working prior to incarceration. When we look at occupational groups, however, clear differences become apparent. Blue collar workers (unskilled, semi-skilled and skilled) had an exceptionally high rate of violent offenses, 47.6%, compared to the overall 34%. White collar workers were more likely to be involved in property crimes and drugs.

Table 4.10.16 Offense by Occupational Status

	Type of Job Prior to Incarceration in Percentage						
Current Offenses	Blue Collar	Personal Services	Clerical/ Sales	Semi-Professional	Professional/ Managerial	Total With Job	Total Without Job
Violent	47.6	33.7	19.7	30.1	35.0	34.7	34.0
Property	25.0	39.0	41.3	38.6	37.0	34.4	31.4
Drug	18.6	15.5	31.8	28.8	12.0	21.9	22.7
Other	8.8	11.8	7.2	2.5	16.0	9.0	12.8
Total (N)	(909)	(626)	(702)	(153)	(100)	(2490)	(3780)

SUMMARY

When compared to the overall criminal population in the United States, both male and female, women account for only 15% of all arrests, 14% of persons on probation, 5% of all jail inmates, and 3% of all prison inmates. Women account for such a small proportion of violent crimes in the United States that the sentences they receive are generally less severe than the sentences men receive.

Examination of arrest statistics for our sample states revealed that only 6.5% of all female arrests are for violent offenses, 23.6% are for property offenses, 8% are for drug offenses, and 6.2% are for prostitution.

Over half (55.6%) of all arrests were for minor offenses, including drunkenness, disorderly conduct, vagrancy, possession of stolen property and parole violations, etc.

In California, the percentage of drug arrests was double the overall average in our sample, and drug offenders were more likely to be incarcerated.

Four out of every ten Hispanic women were incarcerated for drug offenses; this was almost twice the proportion of all women. Blacks were more likely than others to be incarcerated for murder, robbery and assault. The most common crimes for Whites and Indians were forgery/fraud and drugs.

By looking at educational attainment and occupational level as indicators of socio-economic status, it becomes apparent that various offense categories are related to social class. Women with high school educations or better were more likely to be forgers, lesser educated women were more likely to be incarcerated for murder; blue collar workers were more likely to be incarcerated for violent offenses, whereas white collar workers were more likely to be involved in property crimes and drugs. However, whether or not a women was working had virtually no influence on the type of crime for which she was incarcerated.

CRIMINAL JUSTICE HISTORY

The average age at the time of first arrest was 19 years for misdemeanants and 20 years for both unsentenced women and felons. Nearly one-third of the women had been arrested for the first time when they were 17 or younger (31%), another third between the ages of 18 and 21 (34%), 15% between 22 and 24 years, while the remainder were distributed across the other age groups. In keeping with this pattern, about one-third of the women had experienced juvenile detention, almost equally divided between the county juvenile hall (15%) and commitment to a state institution (17%). Juvenile incarceration varied somewhat by state and probably reflects the state and local systems for handling juveniles. Less than 1% of the North Carolina women had ever been in a juvenile hall. State commitments were lowest among the Georgia and Florida women (9%), and highest in the State of Washington (29%). In fact, slightly over half of the Washington women had records of incarceration as juveniles.

Blacks and Whites had similar juvenile patterns, but Indian women were most likely to have had a juvenile commitment (25%), and Hispanic women had the highest juvenile hall rate (26%).

By offense type, eight out of ten murderers had no history of juvenile incarceration, seven out of ten forgers, six out of ten robbers, and five out of ten prostitutes. Women incarcerated for prostitution were the group most likely to have been through the juvenile system.

Table 4.11.1 Juvenile Detention by Prior Adult Incarceration

	Juvenile Detention in Percentage			
Prior Adult Incarceration	None	Juvenile Hall Only	State Commitment	Total (N=6352)
None	53.1	38.4	25.8	(2961)
Jail only	23.8	33.5	29.7	(1682)
Prison	22.1	28.1	44.3	(1709)

Women who had never before been incarcerated as adults were also less likely to have been incarcerated as juveniles (53.1%). At the other extreme, 44.3% of the women who had been in prison at least once before had also had a state commitment as a juvenile. It is important to note, however, that this latter group which might be called highly institutionalized, comprised only 7% of the total inmates.

In a similar manner, prior adult incarceration was related to current criminal justice status. Misdemeanants were most likely to have been in jail before (40.1%), while only 20.7% of the felons had served jail sentences in the past. Felons were more likely to have been in prison before (30.1%) or to have no prior record (39.7%). The first group represents recidivists, the latter were first offenders convicted of serious felony crimes. Unsentenced women, who were most often held on felony charges, also tended to have no prior history (37%).

Table 4.11.2 Prior Adult Incarceration by Criminal Justice Status

Criminal Justice Status	Prior Adult Time Served No Prior	Probation Only	Jail Only	Prison Only	Jail and Prison	Total (N)
Unsentenced	37.0	10.9	29.4	5.4	17.4	(1286)
Misdemeanants	28.0	9.7	40.1	3.2	19.0	(1359)
Felons	39.7	9.4	20.7	8.6	21.5	(3747)
Total	36.7	9.7	26.6	6.8	20.2	(6387)

Table 4.11.3 shows differences from one state to another in the prior criminal justice history of inmates. Here, as in the case of other variables, the state system sometimes accounts for the major differences observed. In Massachusetts, North Carolina, and Georgia, low proportions in jail are partly offset by higher proportions in prison where both misdemeanants and felons serve time. In California and Florida, which had the highest incarceration rates of misdemeanants (Table 4.10.2, p. 142), one-third of the women had been sentenced to jail before. Washington had a similar proportion (34.7%). Women in Colorado, Illinois, and Minnesota were much more likely to have been on probation in the past, 26.6%, 22.5%, and 19.4% respectively compared with 9.7% overall.

Table 4.11.3 Prior Adult Incarceration by State

	Prior Adult Time Served					
State	No Prior	Probation Only	Jail Only	Prison Only	Jail and Prison	Total (N)
California	36.7	6.6	35.3	3.3	30.1	(1965)
New York	47.4	7.9	22.6	8.0	14.1	(847)
Texas	37.3	13.5	26.2	9.0	14.0	(975)
Illinois	34.2	22.5	13.8	7.5	22.0	(159)
Michigan	28.3	12.3	31.1	6.6	21.7	(106)
Florida	39.8	7.8	33.5	5.9	13.1	(805)
Massachusetts	51.9	5.8	8.5	12.7	21.2	(90)
Indiana	42.1	5.5	17.2	0.9	34.3	(128)
North Carolina	54.3	14.6	5.3	12.0	13.9	(432)
Georgia	48.6	8.8	13.3	14.0	15.3	(458)
Minnesota	29.3	19.4	20.0	0.0	31.4	(68)
Washington	32.4	13.0	34.7	4.6	15.3	(215)
Colorado	35.2	26.6	18.5	5.5	14.2	(75)
Nebraska	28.1	10.9	23.4	6.3	31.2	(64)
Total	36.7	9.7	26.6	6.8	20.2	(6387)

In keeping with offense data discussed earlier, in states with more serious offenders, there was usually a greater proportion of women with no prior time served, e.g., in North Carolina, Georgia, Massachusetts, and New York. At the same time, in those states with less serious (usually property) offenders, such as Minnesota, Washington, and Nebraska, the women were least likely to have had no priors. These data indicate that the recidivist group is predominantly involved in property crime, especially larceny (74% with prior incarceration or probation); murderers are most often first offenders (58% with no prior criminal justice status).

By ethnic group, Whites were slightly less likely to have been imprisoned in the past, 32% compared with 28% for Blacks and Indians, and 24% for Hispanic women.

In addition to their own direct experience with the criminal justice system, one-half of the women reported that someone else in their families had been incarcerated, and two-thirds of the women had friends who had been incarcerated before.

By ethnic group, 83% of the Hispanic women had friends who had been incarcerated compared to the overall 66%. Family incarceration had occurred in the following pattern: 40% for Whites, 54% for Blacks, 59% for Hispanics, and 62% for Indians.

Murderers were the least likely to have family (42%) or friends (39%) with criminal histories. Higher proportions of burglars (62%) and assaultive offenders (60%) had a history of family incarcerated; those most likely to have friends in the system were prostitutes (84%), burglars (84%), larceny offenders (80%) and drug offenders (76%).

In analyzing the data, it became apparent that many of the criminal history variables discussed in this section were inter-related, and that in combination they should provide an index for identifying criminality. A score was computed for each individual on four variables in the following manner:

1. Prior Juvenile Detention
   None = 0 Juvenile Hall = 1 State Commitment = 2
2. Prior Adult Record
   None = 0 Probation = 1 Jail = 2 Prison = 3
3. Family Incarceration
   No = 0 Yes = 1
4. Friend Incarceration
   No = 0 Yes = 1

These scores were summed to make a composite criminal history score. The summed scores ranging from zero to seven were trichotomized with scores combined as follows: low group (0-1), moderate group (2-4), and high group (5-7). The distribution was as follows: 28% of the women were in the low group, 44% in the moderate group, and 28% in the high group.

There were no significant differences on the index by race, but there were by education. Women who had not finished high school had significantly higher scores on the criminal history index.[1] Significant differences were also found in relation to marital history. Women who had one marriage or one terminated marriage had lower scores, while women in non-married relationships had higher scores.[2]

[1] Chi square = $\angle$.005 on unweighted data.
[2] Chi square = $\angle$.001 on weighted data.

What the Criminal History Index measures is not seriousness of criminal behavior but habituality. Offense groups with the most high scores and the fewest low scores were prostitutes, drug offenders, and thieves (larceny). The reverse was true for murderers. The data indicate that in terms of the current offense, lesser offenders who were incarcerated had more extensive prior contact with the criminal justice system. By contrast, the most serious offenders, murderers, were incarcerated on the severity of their current behavior, not on past history.

SUMMARY

Nearly one-third of all women had been arrested for the first time at age 17 or younger. Another 49% were first arrested between ages 18 and 24.

Almost one-third of the women had spent time in juvenile institutions. Blacks and Whites had similar patterns of incarceration as juveniles, but Indian women were most likely to have been committed to state institutions. Hispanics had the highest rate of prior commitments to juvenile hall.

Eight out of ten murderers had no history of juvenile incarceration in comparison to seven out of ten forgers, six out of ten robbers, and five out of ten prostitutes. Prostitutes were most likely to have been through the juvenile system.

Women who had never before been incarcerated as adults were also less likely to have been incarcerated as juveniles. The opposite was true for adults with prior prison records. However, it should be noted that this group which had been through both juvenile and adult correctional systems comprised only 7% of the total inmate sample.

Whites were less likely to have prior prison records than other ethnic groups.

Property offenders (especially larceny) were most likely to be recidivists. Murderers were most likely to be first offenders.

Several statewide patterns emerged. In states with more serious offenders incarcerated, there was usually a greater proportion of women with no prior time served. Conversely, states with less serious offenders incarcerated had a greater proportion of women with prior jail or prison terms.

A summary index of prior criminal justice involvement measured habituality rather than severity of offense behavior. Prostitutes, drug offenders, and thieves had the highest scores, while murderers had the lowest scores.

ATTITUDES OF THE FEMALE OFFENDER

The demographic characteristics of the women offender presented in the preceding sections provide an important, but incomplete profile of the women incarcerated in our prisons and jails. Perhaps one of the most notable gaps in the information available is how the women view themselves and the world around them.

Several assumptions about the offender population appear repeatedly in the literature, and many of these assumptions have direct bearing on the type of correctional programs and services that have been developed in the past, and are being planned for the future. Two of the more common assumptions are:

- Women in prison suffer from feelings of low self-esteem and powerlessness.
- Women in prison have negative attitudes toward work.

More recently, the media have been heralding the arrival of the "new female offender" whose criminal activity is linked to the phenomenon of the women's liberation movement. If this relationship does exist, one might assume that incarcerated women would not only have a very high sense of efficacy and self-esteem, but would also hold non-traditional attitudes toward male-female roles.

None of these assumptions has ever been tested; therefore, we decided to incorporate a series of attitudinal items into the inmate questionnaire. Since no instrument with well-defined norms was available, we constructed our own attitudinal questionnaire, incorporting some individual items from existing instruments. (See Appendix E, Inmate Q). The items fall into three general areas: 1) self-esteem, 2) work orientation and 3) non-traditional sex roles.[1]

Inmate responses are recorded in percentages of agreement and disagreement with each statement. An asterisk indicates the direction assumed to be "high" in the general category. The variables used in analyzing attitudinal items were age, ethnic group, and educational attainment. Only those subgroups which differed from the total proportion by 8% or more are highlighted below each item.

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[1] A preliminary factor analysis produced several factors with moderate loadings which could be tentatively labeled self-esteem, work orientation, and non-traditional sex roles. However, much more research time and effort would be required to pursue this matter further in terms of scale development.

SELF-ESTEEM

The items related to self-esteem include expressions of satisfaction with one's own life, attitudes toward other women, and feelings of efficacy (being able to control what happens around you).

	Agree	Disagree
1. Compared to other women I haven't done too badly with my life. No differences by ethnic group. No differences by education. Women 40 and over: 83% agree.	73%*	27%
2. Most people listen to what I have to say. Hispanic women: 51% agree. Direct association with educational attainment, from 57% agreement for those who completed 8th grade or less to 93% agreement for college graduates. Women 40 and over: 85% agree.	69%*	31%
3. People can control much of what happens in their lives. Black and Hispanic women: 70% agree; White and Indian women: 84% agree. No differences by education or age.	79%*	21%
4. It is possible for me to help improve conditions in here. White and Indian women: 45% agree. No differences by education. Direct association with age, from 47% agreement for those 21 and under to 67% agreement for those 40 and over.	53%*	47%

*Indicates response in direction of high self-esteem.

		Agree	Disagree
5.	I'd like to know more about legal matters. No differences by ethnic group, educational attainment or age.	95%*	5%
6.	I wish my life had been different. Indian women: 36% disagree; White women: 34% disagree. Direct association with educational attainment, from 12% disagreement for those who completed 8th grade or less to 45% disagreement for college graduates. No differences by age.	74%	26%*
7.	No matter what I do, I always seem to make mistakes. Hispanic women: 42% disagree; White women: 61% disagree. Direct association with educational attainment, from 41% disagreement for those who completed 8th grade or less to 79% disagreement for college graduates. Women 35 and over: 62% disagree.	47%	53%*
8.	It's not what you know but who you know that's important. Indian women: 65% disagree; White women: 62% disagree. Some college: 67% disagree; College graduates score at the average. No differences by age.	48%	52%*

*Indicates response in direction of high self-esteem.

		Agree	Disagree
9.	I don't expect my life to change much in the future. White women: 74% disagree. Direct association with educational attainment, from 52% disagreement for those who completed 8th grade or less to 86% disagreement for college graduates. No differences by age.	34%	66%*
10.	I wouldn't want to work for a woman. No differences by ethnic group or age. Some college: 79% disagree.	30%	70%*
11.	Women are too emotional to hold jobs that carry a lot of responsibility. White women: 93% disagree. Directly related to educational attainment, from 68% disagreement for those who completed 8th grade or less to 100% disagreement for college graduates. No differences by age.	34%	66%*
12.	Most women are immature. Indian women: 77% disagree. Direct association with educational attainment, from 57% disagreement for those who completed 8th grade or less to 75% disagreement for college graduates. No differences by age.	34%	66%*

*Indicates response in direction of high self-esteem.

WORK ORIENTATION

The items relating to work reflect the increasing significance of the role of work in the lives of women.

	Agree	Disagree
1. It's good for a woman to have a job on the outside even if she has someone to support her. No differences by ethnic group, educational attainment or age.	91%*	9%
2. A career woman can be just as happy as a woman who stays at home with her family. Hispanic women: 71% agree; Black women: 73% agree; White women: 84% agree; Indian women: 87% agree. Educational attainment distinguished the responses of two groups, those who completed 8th grade or less: 70% agreement; those who were high school graduates: 90% agreement. No differences by age.	81%*	19%
3. I've worked harder than most of the men I've known. No ethnic differences; no differences by age. College graduates: 44% agreement.	34%*	66%
4. The men in my life have depended on me to support them. Hispanic women: 19% agree; White women: 39% agree. College graduates: 14% agree. No differences by age.	31%*	69%

*Indicates response in direction of positive attitude toward work.

	Agree	Disagree
5. If I had a choice, I'd rather stay at home than have a job. No differences by ethnic group or age. Related to educational attainment, from 66% disagreement for those who completed 8th grade or less to 89% disagreement for college graduates.	26%	74%*
6. Any job I could get on the outside would probably be a drag. The responses of the four major ethnic groups were distinct on this item: Indian women: 95% disagree; White women: 89% disagree; Black women: 86% disagree; Hispanic women: 79% disagree. Some variation by educational attainment, from 94% disagreement for college graduates to 82% disagreement for those who completed 8th grade or less, with all others falling within one percentage point of the average. Only one age group emerged as different from all others: 79% of women 30-34 were in disagreement with the statement.	13%	87%*
7. Women don't have much chance to get good jobs on the outside. Indian women: 75% disagree. College graduates: 55% disagree. No differences by age.	36%	64%*

*Indicates response in direction of positive attitude toward work.

NON-TRADITIONAL SEX ROLES

These items challenge the traditional stereotypic role behavior of males and females in our society, ranging from attitudes toward having children to concepts of dominance and responsibility.

	Agree	Disagree
1. If a woman is working at a job on the outside her man should help her do housework. No differences by ethnic group. Directly associated with educational attainment, from 66% agreement for those who completed 8th grade or less to 85% agreement for college graduates. Women 40 and over: 85% agree.	73%*	27%
2. A man can take just as good care of children as a woman can. Hispanic women: 31% agree. Some college education: 50% agree. No differences by age.	42%*	58%
3. It's important for a woman to have children. White women: 48% disagree. Related to educational attainment, from 26% disagreement for those who completed 8th grade or less to 56% disagreement for those with some college. However, college graduates were equal to the group average (38%). Directly related to age from 46% disagreement for those 18-21, to 25% disagreement for those 35 and over.	62%	38%*

*Indicates response in direction of non-traditional sex roles.

		Agree	Disagree
4.	A woman who doesn't want to have children is selfish. Indian women: 86% disagree. Less than 8th grade: 55% disagree; some college: 82% disagree. Women 35 and over: 55% disagree.	31%	69%*
5.	A man has the right to insist that his woman stay at home rather than take a job. White women: 60% disagree. Related to educational attainment, from 40% disagreement for those who completed 8th grade or less to 63% disagreement for those who graduated from college. No differences by age.	52%	48%*
6.	A woman should expect her man to support her. No differences by ethnic group. Women with some college: 65% disagree. Women 35 and over: 42% disagree.	48%	52%*
7.	There's something wrong with women who want to work at men's jobs. No differences by ethnic group; no differences by age. Directly related to educational attainment, from 77% for those who completed less than 8 years of school to 91% for college graduates.	16%	84%*

*Indicates response in direction of non-traditional sex roles.

One final item was included in the questionnaire which relates both to traditional male/female stereotypes and to work. The inmates were asked whether it was OK for a woman to hold the following jobs, which appear in order of acceptance, not in the order listed on the questionnaire.[1]

Type of Job	O.K.	NOT O.K.
Grocery store clerk	93%	3%
Doctor	92%	3%
Lawyer	90%	4%
Bank teller	90%	4%
Judge	82%	11%
Bartender	75%	18%
Warden	73%	19%
Sheriff	62%	30%
Truck driver	60%	32%
Car mechanic	55%	38%
Carpenter	52%	40%
Plumber	45%	46%

SUMMARY

Contrary to most assumptions, on eight out of twelve items the majority of women scored in the direction of high self-esteem (or efficacy); on three items there was about a 50-50 split, and on one item most of the women scored low. The latter item, "I wish my life had been different," may have been overwhelmingly accepted with good reason, considering their current status. On the other hand, it was not expected that the women would feel as optimistic as they did about themselves, given their circumstances.

Where differences between ethnic groups were noted, greater proportions of Whites and Indians had high scores and lesser proportions of Hispanic women. Differences by educational level usually indicated that higher educational attainment was related to increased self-esteem. This mirrors the ethnic-educational interaction noted elsewhere. On three items, older women evidenced higher self-esteem.

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[1] Totals do not add to 100% because of missing data. These responses were not analyzed for subgroup differences.

On work orientation the majority of women scored high on 5 out of 7 items, but scored low where work was related to their dependence on men. They rejected two-to-one the ideas that they had worked harder than men or that men had relied on them for support. Obviously, these two items also involved sex role concepts. Hispanic women were somewhat less work oriented than other ethnic groups. Work orientation tended to increase slightly with college education and diminish at the elementary level. However, college graduates were less optimistic about getting good jobs.

In regard to non-traditional sex roles, the women scored high on three out of seven items, low on two items relating to children, and were split on two items regarding male dominance. Only two out of five women agreed that men could take good enough care of children and disagreed that it's important for women to have children. However, seven out of ten refused to call women selfish if they did not want children. Women 35 and over had more traditional views on motherhood. Women with higher educational levels were more likely to reject sex-role stereotypes.

In terms of their acceptance of the right for women to work in specific jobs, the women endorsed most strongly those jobs which are high status in themselves or are already female-linked occupations. The skilled trades were more often rejected, with plumbers least acceptable.

In summary, the majority of incarcerated women felt relatively good about themselves, were oriented toward working, but were still traditional in their concepts of the importance of motherhood and woman's continuing dependence on men. There was little evidence of militant feminism.

SECTION V. VIEW FROM THE INSIDE

Descriptive information is only one part of a total picture of what exists. The actual conditions are often less significant than the way these conditions are perceived by the participants.

The questionnaire that was given to inmates and the interview with administrators offered the opportunity to examine how each of these two groups viewed what was happening in the institution.

Three open-ended questions appeared on both the Inmate Questionnaire and the Administrator Interview, covering the following areas:

1. What is most useful to the inmate while she is incarcerated;
2. What will be most useful to the inmate after her release;
3. What is the least worthwhile aspect of the institution, as it affects the inmate.

Responses were coded on a hierarchical scale as follows:

0. Negative Generalities, such as Nothing is worthwhile/There is nothing here/No programs.
1. Basic Needs (Survival), including: Food, Clothing, Environmental Conditions, Personal Needs (such as sanitary napkins, toothbrushes, etc.), and Loss of Dignity.
2. Personal Comfort Needs, including: Religion (formal, prayer, faith in God, etc.); Boredom (lack of exercise or activity, nothing to do); Loss of Freedom; Medical Care; Mail; Telephone access; Visiting; Recreation; Exposure to Drugs, homosexuality, or crime.
3. Staff, including custody and program staff, favoritism, racial discrimination.
4. Emotional Needs, including interaction with other inmates, keeping to one's self, becoming a better person.
5. Programs, including education, work, treatment, special classes, etc.
6. Outside Activities, including community groups, A.A., ex-offender groups, work/study release, and off-grounds activity.
7. Positive Generalities, such as Everything is good/Nothing is worthless.

The following examples of inmate comments will help clarify the coding system:

Basic Needs and Personal Comfort Needs:

> They could give out a little something to eat at night before the cells are locked - dinner is served at 4:30 and that is a long time to wait until 5:30 a.m. for breakfast. It's an awful thing to be locked up away from the outside and not being able to be with your family.
>
> There is nothing for a Black woman to get for her wooly hair, like oil, which will keep it from falling out. Not combs to comb it. You just look like hell all day long.
>
> I feel that there should be more activities for the women. Boredom is the reason for so many drugs being given out. They keep most of the inmates sleeping all day.

Staff:

> I have received a lot of help from counselors, people and everyone. It helped me find myself to see things I was doing wrong.
>
> We need more Communication between staff and residents as to what is expected of a person while here and more consistency in decisions.
>
> The staff can't get along with residents, they try to treat you small cause they don't realize or understand what it's like to ride in the back of the bus.

Emotional Needs:

> I can't possibly imagine prison helping me morally, spiritually, physically or mentally. Maybe I am not a strong minded person but I feel my mental capacity has deteriorated in prison to the extent, I will have to re-educate myself when released.
>
> (most useful) My fellow inmates' willingness to help me.

> I've learned more here regarding how to relate, evaluate myself and other people than I have in my life at anytime.

Programs:

> We need rehabilitation on a serious level. Some type of counseling and preparation for the return to the free world, instead of the constant harassment that walks with us 24-hours a day. As for myself I am afraid to go because I have nothing to go to.
>
> In my opinion the therapy here is very inadequate and you are most usually put into a position to beg to be allowed into a group. I think that therapy should be a more of a self-actualization program with qualified therapist instead of psychology majors.
>
> This institution just uses us for a source of cheap labor. None of the activities are designed to really help; only pacify so that we don't notice the true conditions we're in.
>
> In my opinion - I hope and I feel that all the people in any institution will try and get in all of the programs that they have. I feel it will help us all a lot.

Community Activities

> Because of the vast disparity in sentencing (from one city to another) more prisons should be opened and all of us should be able to have programs and work-release programs to go to after our incarceration here. We cannot be productive if we are not allowed to produce.

As illustrated by the inmate comments, responses ranged from very basic to personal concerns to reactions to staff and programs. Responses covering two or three areas were given multiple codes. Table 5.1.1 shows the distribution of responses made by inmates and administrators to two questions: 1) what is most useful during incarceration and, 2) what will be most useful after release. (Percentages on sub-totals were included only if they exceeded 5%.)

Table 5.1.1 Value of Institutional Programs in Prisons

	During Incarceration (in %)*		After Inmate's Release (in %)*	
	Inmates (N=3227)	Admin. (N=16)	Inmates (N=3227)	Admin. (N=16)
0. Nothing	14.9	-	-	-
1. Basic Needs	-	-	-	-
2. Personal	29.7	6.2	18.0	-
(Religion)	(22.2)	-	(14.8)	-
(Recreation)	(4.1)	(6.2)	-	-
3. Staff	2.8	43.8	1.1	12.5
4. Emotional Needs	20.2	18.8	7.7	37.5
(Other Inmates)	-	-	(3.8)	(12.5)
(Personal Change)	-	-	(1.6)	(25.0)
5. Programs	52.8	18.8	66.6	62.5
(Educational)	(18.9)	-	(34.5)	(43.8)
(Work)	(11.3)	(6.3)	(12.9)	(6.3)
(Group)	(10.4)	(12.5)	(8.3)	(12.5)
6. Community Activ.	10.1	12.5	11.8	25.0
(A.A.)	(6.1)	-	(6.4)	-

*Percentages exceed 100% because of multiple responses.

Half of the prisoners (52.8%) mentioned programs as being the most valued aspect while in prison and two-thirds (66.6%) of the women said that programs would be most useful after release. Specifically, education was seen as the most valuable program, followed by work assignment and group counseling. During their incarceration, 22.2% of the inmates stated that religion was the most valuable and 14.8% felt that religion would help them the most after release. Almost 15% of the inmates said that nothing was of any value during incarceration.

The prison administrators responded quite differently. Unlike inmates, the administrators felt that staff were the most valuable to inmates during incarceration, (43.8%) compared to only 2.8% of the inmates who put high value on staff. Administrators did not mention religion as an important factor. On the second question, dealing with inmates after release, administrators' responses were more like those of inmates, giving top priority to programs (62.5%) ranking education highest, followed by group counseling. However, administrators focused more on change within the individual (25%) than did the individuals themselves (1.6%). One-fourth of the administrators also felt that activities involving the community would be most beneficial to inmates after release.

Table 5.1.2 Value of Institutional Programs in Jails

	During Incarceration (in %)*		After Inmate's Release (in %)*	
	Inmates (N=2227)	Admin. (N=40)	Inmates (N=1989)	Admin. (N=40)
0. Nothing	24.3	5.0	37.8	31.6
1. Basic Needs	1.2	5.0	-	3.5
2. Personal Comfort	28.4	50.0	14.1	14.1
(Religion)	(13.5)	-	(11.1)	-
(Recreation)	(9.8)	(27.5)	-	-
3. Staff	2.0	45.0	0.7	14.5
4. Emotional Needs	22.8	30.0	8.7	14.5
(Other Inmates)	(10.7)	-	-	-
(Inner Resources)	(10.5)	-	-	-
(Being There)	-	-	(4.4)	-
5. Programs	41.9	32.5	39.3	62.9
(Education)	(16.3)	-	(24.1)	(22.5)
(Work)	(7.4)	-	(6.7)	-
(Arts & Crafts)	(5.9)	-	(2.1)	-
6. Community Activ.	2.5	5.0	5.3	52.6
7. Everything	0.0	5.0	-	-

*Percentages exceed 100% because of multiple responses.

Jail inmates also ranked programs as the most useful both while incarcerated (41.9%) and after release (39.3%), primarily education (16.3% and 24.1% respectively). However, 24% of the inmates felt that nothing was of value during incarceration and 37.8% felt nothing within the jail would help them after release. During their confinement, 10.7% of the jail inmates looked to other inmates to meet their needs, while 10.5% of the inmates relied on themselves or their own inner strength.

Half (50%) of the jail administrators regarded personal comfort needs, primarily recreation (27.5%), as most worthwhile during incarceration. This is interesting since recreational opportunities at the jail level were usually quite limited. The same discrepancy in perceptions was found at the jail level as at the prison level, namely, 45% of jail administrators considered staff most valuable to the incarcerated inmate compared with only 2% of the inmates who shared this view. Nearly one-third of the jail administrators agreed with 38% of the inmates that nothing happening in the jail would help the inmate after release. Programs (62.9%) and community activities (52.6%) were rated high by jailers, but these responses may have been more hypothetical than real, since so little was found in these areas in jails.

Table 5.1.3 presents the views of inmates and administrators on what is least worthwhile in the institutions. While inmates in both prisons and jails found programs most valuable, prison inmates were also most critical of the programs that did exist (40.5%); criticism focused on the quality of programs, limited access to programs, etc. More generally, 9.2% of the prisoners stated there was nothing available, 11.6% said that what was available, was useless, and 9.2% made statements to the effect that "nothing is useless, everything is good for somebody." Jail inmates more often complained about confinement and boredom (22.7%) and were joined in these complaints by their administrators (43.4%) and by prison superintendents (37.6%). Jail inmates were much less likely to complain about programs (16.3%) but more likely to say there was nothing available (22.2%). Again, about one-fifth of the administrators agreed.

When inmates' responses were analyzed by criminal justice status, consistent differences were found on all three questions. Unsentenced women in the jail were most likely to complain about confinement and boredom and to rely on religion, other inmates, or themselves while incarcerated. Felons were most likely to value and to be critical of programs, while misdemeanants' responses were in between, sharing some of the elements found predominantly in the other two groups.

Table 5.1.3 Least Worthwhile Part of Incarceration in Prisons and Jails

	PRISONS		JAILS	
	Inmates (N=2586)	Admin. (N=16)	Inmates (N=1678)	Admin. (N=30)
0. Nothing Here	9.2	18.8	22.2	20.0
0. Everything Useless	11.6	-	10.9	-
1. Basic Needs	4.1	-	5.7	3.3
2. Personal Comfort	14.8	43.8	31.6	50.0
(Confinement)	(6.4)	(18.8)	(11.5)	(26.7)
(Boredom)	-	(18.8)	(11.2)	(16.7)
3. Staff	3.7	-	8.1	-
4. Emotional Needs	2.1	-	3.4	-
5. Programs	40.5	18.8	16.3	20.0
(Education)	(6.5)	-	-	-
(Work)	(10.8)	-	-	-
(Group)	(7.1)	-	-	-
6. Community Activ.	1.5	-	0.4	3.3
7. Nothing Useless	9.2	18.8	2.3	10.0

Percentages exceed 100% because of multiple responses.

Summary Comments by Inmates

I am gratefully surprised at this institution. Before you come to a place such as this you imagine the worst. I feel that the way this institution is run (like a college campus) is beneficial for rehabilitation.

This place is alright for a vacation, but I wouldn't want to live here permanently. The only highlights are mail call, visiting (I've never had a visitor in the 4 months I've been in confinement) and church because they give you a few minutes out of the smelly, overcrowded, lice and roach infested tanks, once or twice a week.

We could use a clock and a radio around here. I don't think this place is helping any of the inmates. We need a womens 'rehab.' center. It's overcrowded and they feed us too many damn starches. Justice really is blind.

I feel that there is no excuse for the conditions in this jail. There are absolutely no recreational facilities here in the jail which is something that is badly needed, if only to release frustrations. Also because of the diet, which is composed primarily of starches there is a great need for a place to work out and exercise. Sunlight is a great health factor, and for people who have been here for months at a time, they never see the sun, or feel its effects unless they go to court or the hospital. This is inhumane to lock people up and never subject them to anything but the confines of their cell and "dayroom." I'm not sure if its because of lack of funds or just plain not caring, but there are no classes or anything relative to learning available here in the county jail. You would think there would at least be a class for those who don't have their GED, but there has been no attempt, to my knowledge, to put a program of this nature into effect. There are not even any arts and crafts facilities available to the inmates. This seems to be a great neglect as far as rehabilitating people goes; and it may be a far greater crime than some of those committed by the prisoners here in the jail.

SECTION VI. COMMUNITY-BASED PROGRAMS: AN ANALYSIS

In recent years, community-based programs have proliferated throughout the United States as a result of community efforts to develop alternatives to large-capacity correctional institutions located far from major metropolitan centers. In an effort to describe the range and type of these programs, both in comparison with traditional forms of incarceration and in comparison to each other, we examined 36 community-based programs in our sample states, excluding California.

Data from the interview schedules resulted in the identification of six categories of residential programs at the community level: halfway houses including alternatives to incarceration; work-release/pre-release centers; academic pre-release centers; therapeutic communities for drug abusers; mixed modality drug programs; and residential centers for alcoholics. This categorization was empirically derived by identifying different client groups, modalities and stages in the criminal justice process at which clients entered each program.

Several observations can be made about community-based programs in general. They do tend to differ from correctional programs in that the racial distribution of staff more closely resembles that of the resident population; most programs utilize exoffenders as staff; many programs utilize extensive family and community involvement; and many programs do in fact utilize primarily community resources rather than in-house resources. On the other hand, there were several dimensions in which many programs seemed a mere extension of the criminal justice system. That is, the majority of all programs were control-oriented, which was typically manifested through use of room searches, urine tests and, occasionally, body searches to maintain program control over residents and a heavily structured treatment modality. In addition, several programs were so costly (e.g., $10,076 to $14,350 per client per year) as to approach or even greatly exceed the average cost per year of incarceration in a correctional institution.

Table 6.1.1 Comparative Costs of Prisons and Community-based Programs for Women

	COST PER CLIENT PER YEAR				
	≤$3,000	$3,000/ $4,999	$5,000/ $6,999	$7,000/ $11,999	$12,000+
Total					
Prisons (12)	2	1	3	2*	5
Community-based (31)	6	8	9*	6	2

*Median Costs fall into these cost categories for each type.

Perhaps the most surprising result of our effort was the realization that programs within each category were more notable for their similarity than for their unique aspects. Few programs presented truly innovative approaches to community-based treatment. Therapeutic communities for drug abusers were most notable for their consistent emphasis on urine tests, searches and control and their high cost (average cost per year ranged from $4,500 to $14,350). Work-release/pre-release centers were characterized by their absence of exoffenders as staff, the fact that they were all run by correctional agencies, and their relative absence of any specific treatment modality.

It is important to note that costs per client per year must not be taken at face value. We found, not surprisingly, that costs of a program are highest in projects which rely heavily on internal resources, rather than seeking resources from the community in which it is located. Similarly, costs are higher for programs which provide a variety of intensive therapies which involve a higher proportion of staff members per client. Conversely, costs were considerably lower for programs which rely heavily on community resources and focus primarily on employment and skills training for residents. As might be expected, programs which require that inmates pay board can generally report a lower cost per client (at least in terms of cost to a funding agency).

Program types can be differentiated by the combination of costs and services. Therapeutic communities usually were the most costly programs for two reasons: they had high staff/client ratios to provide in-house services and they rarely required clients to pay board since their emphasis was on psychological change, not community adaptation. Halfway houses and work-release centers usually expected the client to use community resources, to work and to pay board, resulting in lower average costs.

Co-correctional facilities were rarely observed in work-release/pre-release programs. However, 9 of the 11 drug programs visited had both male and female residents. Similarly, only 1 of the 8 work-release/pre-release programs had both male and female staff. It is apparent that correctional agencies operating community-based programs are less apt to utilize cross-sex counseling and related services. It is interesting to note, however, that almost all types of programs had staff whose racial/ethnic distribution closely resembled that of residents.

A further note on the composition of the resident population in community-based programs is that they generally appear to be the "best risks," since many programs screen out hard-core, violent offenders, or individuals with heavy emotional problems. We can only add that to do so perhaps unnecessarily denies some offenders who are most in need of a "break" or the opportunity to be in a halfway house (a "safe" place) and to have access to needed services while they make their transition to the free community.

Capacity (bed space) in community-based programs ranged from 8 beds in a facility for women only to 140 beds in a co-correctional facility. Costs per client per year ranged from $2,500 for the 140-bed facility that served as an alternative to incarceration to $14,350 for a 24-bed facility that served as a therapeutic community for drug abusers.

ACADEMIC PRE-RELEASE

We examined only one academic pre-release program in our sample states, in Washington. This program was located on a university campus and had a capacity of 40 beds. At the time of the interview with the program manager, the facility held 30 men and 3 women who were released from prison prior to their parole dates for the purpose of enrollment at the university. Female residents consisted of three White women. The program had eight full-time staff and a staff/client ratio of approximately 1:4. Racial distribution of the staff included 1 Black, 3 White, 2 Hispanic, 1 Indian and 1 Oriental (this was the most varied racial distribution of any program in our sample).

The program is administered by the University and "selection criteria" excluded sex offenders or individuals with a history of violent offenses and limited the program to those with "satisfactory institutional adjustment." Clearly, this program accepted only the best risks.

Residents were not required to pay board. Tuition was provided for residents. Cost per resident per year was estimated at $4,000. As the program focused solely on academic studies, no specific therapy was utilized. The age range of clients was 20-40 years. This program had strong involvement with residents' families and the university community. Indeed, most of the program's resources were from the community-at-large.

Average length of stay for residents was only 4 months, possibly due to the fact that this low surveillance program in a university setting was such a tremendous departure from the structured environment of a correctional institution. Staff reported that this environment offered too little structure and too easy access to drugs available near the campus.

WORK-RELEASE CENTERS

We also examined eight work-release/pre-release centers. All of these programs were operated by correctional agencies and all but two of the programs required frequent body searches, urine tests and room searches. Only one of the 8 programs was co-correctional. Capacity (bed space) ranged from 10 to 64.

None of these programs utilized exoffenders as staff. However, the racial distribution of staff closely approximated that of residents. Almost all work-release/pre-release programs had more Black residents than that of any other racial/ethnic group. This is in keeping with the fact that Blacks are overrepresented in correctional institutions. As with other types of community-based programs, few of the residents were Hispanic or Indian.

Only one of the programs had any "selection" (actually "exclusion") criteria other than "satisfactory institutional adjustment."

Since these programs focused primarily on early release of prison inmates for the purpose of working, few programs used specific therapeutic approaches other than individual counseling. One program used Reality Therapy, one used Transactional Analysis, and one used a combination of these modalities.

All but one of the programs required that residents pay board once they were working, thereby placing emphasis on individual responsibility of residents.

Costs per client per year ranged from $3,500 (for a program which offered almost no services from in-house or the community--just an opportunity to work) to $6,007 for a program that relied heavily on community resources. The average cost per client per year for work-release/pre-release programs was $5,285.

Average length of stay for work-release/pre-release programs ranged from 3½ months to 13 months, with most programs clustered at 4-5 months. Age of residents on work-release/pre-release status ranged from 18-52, with most residents clustered at 20-30 years.

HALFWAY HOUSES/ALTERNATIVES TO INCARCERATION

Thirteen of the community-based programs we examined can be characterized as halfway houses or alternatives to incarceration or combinations of the two. Only four of these programs were co-correctional. Capacity (bed space) of these programs ranged from 8 in a program for women only to 140 for a co-correctional program.

Three of the alternative to incarceration programs were administered by correctional agencies, and all of these were characterized by frequent client and room searches and surveillance. Two of these three programs used exoffenders on the staff (both programs were in Florida).

All halfway houses and alternatives to incarceration programs employed staffs whose ethnic/racial distribution approximated that of the clients. Two of the 13 programs required that residents pay board. Seven out of 10 halfway houses conducted some room and body searches of clients. Client ages ranged from 17 to 73 years, with most programs clustering at 18-30 years.

Five of the 13 programs used Reality Therapy, solely; two used only Transactional Analysis; 10 programs used a combination of the two; one program used only Gestalt Therapy; and two programs used a combination of Gestalt Therapy and Transactional Analysis. One program used Dance Therapy in addition to other modalities and one used Bioenergetics and Meditation.

Only one program received self-referrals from clients. Most halfway houses received parolees only, although some halfway houses received clients diverted in conjunction with probation or as alternatives to incarceration. Three programs operated solely as alternatives to incarceration.

Most halfway houses and alternatives to incarceration utilized both family and community involvement and most programs utilized primarily community resources, rather than relying primarily on in-house resources. Nine of the 13 programs utilized exoffenders on the staff.

Average length of stay varied greatly from 35 days to 18 months, although most programs clustered at 3-6 months. Costs per resident per year ranged from $2,500 for a 140-bed facility run by a correctional agency to $10,300 for a 14-bed facility run by a community agency. Average cost per resident per year for all facilities was $6,205.

PROGRAMS FOR ALCOHOLICS

We examined three community-based programs for alcoholics. Two of these were for women only and one was co-correctional. Capacity (bed space) of these centers ranged from 10 to 33 residents. Racial distribution of clients and staff closely approximated each other. All three programs were operated by community agencies.

No selection criteria were employed but clients must be alcoholics, preferably self-motivated to succeed as a responsible human being. No therapeutic modalities were utilized except Alcoholics Anonymous. All programs were characterized by a family atmosphere.

In all three programs, inmates were required to pay board. There were no room or body searches in these programs. All three programs operated as alternatives to incarceration, although one program also accepted self-referrals. Age of clients clustered at 40-60, although one program accepted clients from age 16 through 80. All three programs utilized exoffenders on the staff.

THERAPEUTIC COMMUNITIES FOR DRUG ABUSERS

We examined nine therapeutic communities for drug abusers. These programs are characterized by almost total reliance on in-house resources and use of family therapy, encounter group, intensive attack therapy. Essentially, these programs are modeled on Maxwell Jones' conception of the therapeutic community as a viable means for dealing with drug abusers (primarily heroin addicts) who are viewed as immature people who must be forced through a self-degradation process to confront themselves through heavy peer-group enforced therapy situations. Therefore, in most therapeutic communities the resident progresses through phases (which reflect a range of privileges) to the point of graduation from the therapeutic community. Staff of these programs are typically graduates of similar or the same programs.

Not all of the programs adhered strictly to this model of the therapeutic community, since several programs did in fact involve the resident's family and some community services in their program, but most of the programs we examined were highly structured. Therapies offered by all of these programs were heavily psychologically-oriented and use of Reality Therapy was rare. Capacity of these programs ranged from 14 for a small program limited to females to a 120-bed facility which housed both males and females. A striking difference of the therapeutic communities from the other types of programs was that almost all of them were co-correctional. Racial/ethnic distribution of staff and clients did not always correspond; there was a predominance of White staff members in these programs. There were no Hispanic women in therapeutic communities and only one program had a predominance of Indian residents.

Most of the therapeutic communities had a 1:1 staff/client ratio. Such a high proportion of staff to clients and a concentration on in-house resources clearly contributes to the high cost per client per year of therapeutic communities. These costs ranged from $4,530 for a program with a capacity of 30 and a staff/client ratio of 1:1.6 to $14,350 for a program with a capacity of 24 and a staff/client ratio of 1.1:1. A major cost differential between these two programs at either end of the range was that the more expensive program did utilize primarily in-house resources, whereas the less expensive program used primarily community resources. Only one program required clients to pay board.

Selection criteria for therapeutic communities were largely non-existent, although several programs indicated that they only accepted the "best risks." Furthermore, several programs accepted clients as diversion from the justice system, alternatives to incarceration, parolees and even self-referrals who were not offenders or exoffenders. Only 5 of the 9 programs were limited to offenders or ex-offenders. Only two programs offered a modality other than encounter therapy or family therapy. Six of the programs utilized frequent urine tests, room searches and more than occasional body searches of clients.

Age of clients ranged from 16-60, but clients were clustered in ages 17 through 35 years.

Only three of the nine programs utilized heavy community involvement in program operations and only 5 programs made strong attempts to involve a client's family in the program. Average length of stay ranged from 3 months to 13 months, although most programs clustered at 8 months to one year. All programs used exoffenders on the staff.

MIXED MODALITY DRUG PROGRAMS

Two of the drug programs we examined offered a mixture of therapeutic modalities, with a general focus on Reality Therapy and Transactional Analysis, plus group and individual counseling. One program was limited to offenders diverted from the justice system or referred to the program as an alternative to incarceration. The other program accepted clients at all entry points in the justice system, as well as self-referrals. Both programs utilized urine tests, room searches and occasional body searches of clients.

Staff/client ratios were 1:2.2 and 1:3.5. Costs per resident per year were $8,206 and $4,500. Neither project had clear selection criteria, although both felt client self-motivation was a prime factor in client success.

Age range of clients for both programs was approximately 18-24 years. The more expensive program utilized primarily community resources and some family involvement. Interestingly, the less expensive program used both family and community involvement, but primarily in-house resources. Average length of stay was 2 months in the more expensive program and one year in the less expensive program. In addition, those programs which used exoffenders on the staff were less expensive.

SUMMARY

In recent years community-based programs have proliferated as a result of community efforts to develop alternatives to large capacity correctional institutions located far from metropolitan centers. Thirty-six programs were examined in all sample states, excluding California. Six categories of residential programs were identified:

1. halfway houses, including alternatives to incarceration
2. academic pre-release programs
3. work-release/pre-release centers
4. therapeutic communities for drug abuses
5. residential centers for alcoholics
6. mixed modality drug programs

Community-based programs differ from correctional institutions in the following ways: racial/ethnic distribution of staff more closely resembles that of the resident population; most programs utilize exoffenders (except work-release/pre-release programs, which were run by correctional agencies); many programs utilize extensive family and community involvement; and many programs do in fact utilize primarily community resources rather than in-house resources. However, on several dimensions, many programs seemed merely an extension of the criminal justice system, due to their use of room searches, urine tests and, occasionally, body searches (to maintain control over residents) and a heavily structured treatment modality.

Treatment modalities varied per program, but the most frequently used modalities were Reality Therapy and Transactional Analysis or a combination of the two modalities. Primary emphasis of most programs, except therapeutic communities, was on providing services to meet the practical, survival-related needs of residents and to promote self-sufficiency of residents, often with a focus on employment or skills training. Therapeutic communities, however, emphasized effecting change within the client and tended to exclude community involvement.

Cost per client per year ranged from $2,500 to $14,350. Major determinants of cost were whether a program used either primarily in-house or community resources and whether residents were required to pay board.

None of the 36 programs in our sample had clearly stated selection criteria. Rather, most programs had what might be called exclusion criteria, which essentially excluded offenders with histories of violent crime, drug offenses or severe emotional disturbance.

All programs indicated that resident self-motivation to succeed in the community was a prime factor in both selection of residents and their eventual success during the program and after they left the program.

SECTION VII. IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH NEEDS

It is clear that a sharp distinction exists between women's prisons and women's jails. By and large, the descriptions of the inequities in program opportunities for women that have appeared in the literature, more aptly describe the situation in jails rather than prisons, especially those jails that are administratively and physically a part of a primarily male institution.

On the other hand, women's prisons seem to reflect the least repressive end of the continuum of a given state's correctional philosophy. The women's prison is not as large, not as heavily oriented toward security and surveillance, and seemingly not as repressive as the men's institutions.

At the same time, women's institutions are still heavily steeped in some of the more common notions of appropriate female behavior, a fact which helps to account for some of the more positive aspects of the physical surroundings as well as the more negative aspects of limited program opportunities.

The differences among the states are reflections of a complex web of social, demographic, political, and economic factors which influence the entire criminal justice system. In addition to these complexities, broader social and technological changes are occurring everywhere, and these too influence both our perception of the problems of the offender and the methods we choose to solve these problems. There is much to be learned from an examination of women's institutions that has applicability to the whole field of corrections.

INMATE DATA

The statistical information on the female offender presented in this volume is both an end in itself and a means of achieving other goals.

As an end product, it provides three basic kinds of baseline data:

1. Those which confirm many of the descriptions of the female offender that appear in the literature:
    - Ethnic minorities were disproportionately represented in our institutions.
    - Young women under 30 comprised the bulk of the population.
    - The formal educational attainment of the women was lower than the general population.
    - A majority of the women received some form of welfare, usually Aid for Dependent Children.
    - Only a small percentage of the women had intact marriages.
    - A large proportion of the women were serving sentences for drug offenses.
2. Those which differ significantly from previous statements about the female offender:
    - More than two-fifths of the women worked in the two months prior to incarceration. Almost all of the women had worked at some time in their lives.
    - No differences were noted in offense categories for women who worked and for women who did not work.
    - Prostitutes were a very small percentage of incarcerated women.

- Almost half of the women had received prior vocational training.
- Although 75% of the women were mothers, only 57% of the total sample had their children under 18 living with them prior to the present incarceration.

3. Those which show the interrelationship of individual variables and the differences among states.

Without reiterating examples of the specific interrelationships and differences that were described in the study, these items serve most appropriately as the point of departure for the use of the data as a tool for program planners.

The starting point for program planning is unfortunately often far removed from the clients for whom the program is planned. While it is true that many programs and services have almost universal applicability, e.g. education and medical care, the specific nature of the program depends in significant ways on the particular needs and characterisitcs of the client group.

The section which follows highlights some of the ramifications for program planning that are related to specific characteristics of the inmate profile.

ETHNIC DIFFERENCES

Ethnic differences are not only real, they are functional and valuable. And often, they are in conflict with the predominant norms of white middle-class Americans. Ethnic differences are reflected in language patterns, values, methods of child-rearing and aspirations, although clearly, some of these differences are related to social class as well.

The issue of language is especially critical since it not only affects special programs, but daily routines as well. For states with Spanish speaking inmates, this issue must be addressed in terms of staff competence to communicate and interpret when necessary.

AGE

The significance of age as a variable to be considered in program planning is perhaps best illustrated in terms of educational programs.

Many of the women with an 8th grade education or less are 35 and over. They may be deficient in some of the basic skills such as reading, yet their life experience as well as their chronological age makes it difficult, if not downright humiliating, to be expected to learn to read an elementary school textbook written for 10 year olds. Most of the women can comprehend spoken English at an adult level, yet basic readers rarely contain material appropriate to adults.

The same comments apply to teaching methods. Age appropriate subject matter and methods are necessary ingredients in successful programs; not just educational programs, but social, recreational, medical and custodial programs as well.

MARITAL STATUS AND CHILDREN

The family, for all its problems, is still of considerable importance as a pivotal point in most people's lives. For the incarcerated woman, even the most unstable relationship with parents, spouse, boyfriend or children assumes a position of paramount importance. It is the link with the real world.

Several aspects of the woman's status as wife and/or mother should be considered in planning programs. First the social welfare services that might be needed when the woman is first incarcerated to assure her that her children are being taken care of. These services are of importance throughout a woman's stay, and probably right before, and soon after she leaves as well.

Visiting, letter-writing and access to a telephone are small, but important elements of programs to help maintain relationships.

For the pregnant inmate, medical care should provide not only what is minimally necessary for present needs, but should include educational aspects for promoting better health practices following release.

INMATES AS WELFARE RECIPIENTS AND CHILDHOOD BACKGROUND

It is doubtful whether any period of incarceration or any single program can ever begin to compensate for an unstable or unhappy childhood. Neither can our prisons and jails overcome the problems of poverty in our society. However, programs can assist women to learn how to cope with "the system," and perhaps even how to use it more effectively.

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

Educational attainment is only a crude measure of actual skills. The truth is, many people leave high school functionally illiterate, while others with only an eighth grade education have skills well beyond what their formal years of schooling would suggest.

An eighth grade reading level will enable one to read (comprehend) the newspaper, job applications, unemployment forms, and most novels. The basic differences between reading levels beyond the basic skill level are reading speed and vocabulary. Most reading tests are timed tests, and individuals who do not have either the opportunity or desire to read are generally slow readers (or word readers). The tests that are used in many institutions are simply inappropriate for disadvantaged or disinterested adults.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND WORK EXPERIENCE

Prior levels of training and/or work experience are frequently not taken into account in planning programs. There are few opportunities in either prisons or jails for utilizing and maintaining skills that the women already have. In planning programs, serious consideration should be given to the previous work experience of the women, as well as to their skills and aspirations.

OFFENSE DATA AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE HISTORY

Both offense data and criminal justice history determine to a great extent the status of the offender in the Criminal Justice System which in turn affects the length of time to be served.

The offender who is sentenced to three months in a local jail has different needs than the woman who is unsentenced and may appear and disappear within three days. In similar fashion, the prison must deal with women who are sentenced for a year or two, and those who face five years or longer.

Clearly when we think in terms of traditional school years or semesters, our ability to plan viable programs is limited. The time constraints, whether too long or too short, require planners to explore a variety of alternatives, both in terms of what programs they decide to offer and the methods they choose for implementation. A further problem must also be considered -- many of the women are repeaters, and in some ways they pose the same problems as the long-termers who have gone through all of the programs.

Offense type is also important in states that have licensing and employment restrictions for exoffenders, and planners should consider the legal limitations before developing training programs that lead nowhere.

CONCLUSIONS

Each of the inmate variables alone affects some aspect of the total institutional environment. In combination, they create a complex set of elements that would prove unmanageable were it not for one saving grace: all of these variables belong to people who share on essential quality -- their humanness.

> Nothing ever seems to become of surveys, programs, etc. I feel that all this is a waste of time because when it gets to the people of importance they always seem to ignore it. "A convict is a convict" so they think. They don't realize that we are humans just like they are.

INSTITUTIONS AND PROGRAMS

The programs and services in the institution show such variations that it seems appropriate to conclude that there is no single philosophy of corrections relating to the female offender.

Some of the conflicts, and questions and implications of institutional and program data are summarized below:

INSTITUTIONAL VARIABLES

One of the major issues raised in relation to the proposed Equal Rights Amendment is the question of providing women with equal opportunities to those of men, especially relating to work opportunities. The obvious implication for institutional administrators focuses on vocational training and work-release programs. At the heart of the issue, however, is the question of whether equal opportunities will be interpreted as identical programs and environments with those offered in male institutions, or whether women's institutions will be able to explore new ways to provide a wider range of program opportunities consistent with both the interests of and realistic job possibilities for women after release. There is also a trend evident in the Federal Bureau of Prisons to provide men with the privacy and normalization typically reserved for women.

We did not specifically address the issue of co-correctional institutions, although three of the prisons we studied had become co-correctional. Two of the three received high ratings in terms of institutional environment. It is not clear whether the philosophy which produced autonomous environments also enabled the institutions to adapt to co-corrections, or vice versa. However, we suspect that co-corrections, which by definition would increase normalization, would not be adaptable to a repressive setting. One inmate described succinctly the impact of co-corrections on her, "A co-ed institution is a beautiful place if you enjoy a Platonic relationship."

It appears that a minimum of about 150 inmates is required to enable an institution to provide a diversity of programs within the institution. However, an alternative with small populations is to utilize community resources and individual programming. The latter approach can only succeed if inmates are given a high degree of autonomy along with moral support and encouragement from staff.

It is also evident that design influences program. Appropriate space must be designated for an activity or program as an initial step in the planning process.

In terms of remoteness, women prisoners are often remote from their families but probably no more so than are men since nearness to home is not a major classification criterion in most states. Because of growth in community services, women's prisons are less remote in terms of an available service area than they were in the past. Developing community ties is an important institutional function. Jails in large counties, although by no means remote, do not take much advantage of their easy access to services from and in the community.

INTAKE AND CLASSIFICATION

The word classification may be a misnomer. Most women's institutions are too small to permit much use to be made of the classification process. Classification is chiefly a management tool which assists in determining where inmates should be housed, where they should work, and what other programs they should participate in. It would seem appropriate for an inmate to participate actively in the planning of her institutional program (or lack of program) and thus assume responsibility for her time in the institution.

Intake procedures often appear to be repetitive and unnecessarily humilitating.

If testing procedures are used for new inmates, we should be aware of the problems inherent in getting accurate results when we test an individual immediately after her arrival in the institution. The period immediately following incarceration is one of high stress and anxiety which may affect the accuracy of our results. Testing might more profitably be done after a period of initial adjustment to the institution.

The overlap of programs is apparent in the classification process where medical staff and counseling/treatment staff perform important functions in assessing new inmates.

COUNSELING

Counseling and treatment services, which should be crucial in a rehabilitation model, are much less available than the literature and current controversy would indicate. In fact, the data indicate that rehabilitation is not offered to most inmates, unless one defines rehabilitation as being confined, abiding by rules, and doing an institutional job.

One of the major problems in counseling, where it exists, is the lack of consistency from one part of the institution to the next. It is not simply that treatment modalities themselves are inconsistent in terms of their varied approaches to problem solving, but that other program personnel in the institution are unaware of what is being done and often counteract or countermand the behavior that was learned in a counseling session.

HEALTH CARE

Medical services appear to be the services least integrated into the total institutional framework. Medical staff were most likely to make comments such as the following quote: "What happens in the rest of the institution has nothing to do with me." This attitude is of special concern in the light of the frequent use of prescribed medication which impacts the entire institution. Furthermore, many aspects of the institutional environment - cleanliness, food, access to fresh air and recreational activities, privacy, staff attitudes, etc. - should be viewed as important components in the total health care of inmates.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

Over two-fifths of women in institutions had a high school education or better; this clearly suggests that institutions should re-assess education programs to avoid excessive focus on remedial education and high school equivalency programs. Clearly, many incarcerated women are ready for college-level programs which can be offered both inside the institution and in the free community for those who are good security risks.

We would like to reiterate a point made in the section describing the methodology of data collection regarding the development and administration of the inmate's questionnaire. With only a few exceptions, all questions were answered legibly and clearly, and more than half the women wrote comments at the end. While we acknowledge some spelling errors and faulty punctuation, we would like to make it clear that the women could, and did communicate reasonably well.

It is apparent that problems are created by the lack of a high school diploma or its equivalent; however, many of the current methods of determining literacy and of remediating deficiencies may need considerable re-evaluation.

In terms of vocational education, our data indicated that many incarcerated women received training in the free community in exactly the same occupations in which training is currently offered in institutions. This suggests that women with such backgrounds should be asked if they want to upgrade these skills or acquire new skills, rather than to needlessly repeat training. Many incarcerated women aspire to higher occupations than the ones for which they were trained, and opportunities should be provided for upgrading skills. Basically, it appears that vocational education programs should provide training in both traditional and non-traditional jobs for women and that determination of what specific training areas should be offered in a particular institution should be based on input from the inmates. To provide the greatest range of vocational training programs, resources in the free community should be utilized.

In addition to skills training, women should be helped to develop the kind of attitudes that will permit them to utilize child care facilities after release without feeling guilty about leaving their children.

The issue of motivation has been raised over and over again by administrators and program supervisors who lament that the women just don't want to participate in anything. Although the present study did not explore motivational factors, it is apparent that many of the women felt that any program was better than nothing.

Brief courses or workshops could deal effectively with some general life issues, such as survival skills, consumer education, child development, and pre-vocational training. Regardless of her length of stay, a woman could be involved in these workshops.

WORK ASSIGNMENTS

Our data indicate that women would rather be occupied than bored. However, working conditions should be humane; inmates should be paid for their work and be allowed to change their work assignments in a situation that simulates the free world labor market.

CONCLUSIONS

Program planning from an institutional aspect should begin with a correctional philosophy and a physical facility, knowledge of the population to be incarcerated and the range of program options. Informed decision making, periodic reappraisal, and flexibility should be characteristic of program administration.

FUTURE RESEARCH NEEDS

This study was designed to provide baseline data on the incarcerated female offender and to describe the range of programs and services available to her in jails, prisons and community-based programs. It is, thus, the starting point for a more comprehensive series of research studies aimed at exploring in greater depth 1) some of the issues that have simply been described in the present report, and 2) other relevant issues not included in this study.

Comparable studies of the demographic characteristics of the offender population should be done on:

- female offenders at the time of arrest, pre-trial diversion, and court disposition
- female offenders in the states not included in the present study
- female offenders in community-based programs.

Comparative studies are needed on male and female offenders to answer questions about the differences and similarities betwwen them. This is especially important in understanding the implications for co-correctional programs.

Uniform data systems are needed to allow comparability of data between stages of the criminal justice system and among the different jurisdictions at both the state and national level.

In-depth studies are required to explore further some of the relationships suggested by the demographic information on the female offender:

- the contrasting marital patterns of different ethnic groups and their relationship to criminality
- mobility patterns and childhood backgrounds and their relationships to criminal activity
- female dependence on males and its effect on women's offense behavior
- the relationship between offense type and occupation, including prior job stability and factors affecting it.

Further study should be undertaken to gather additional information about female offenders in the following major areas:

- the reasons for the extreme over-representation of Blacks and Indians in jails and prisons
- drug and alcohol use/abuse among women offenders
- inmate attitudes toward self-esteem, traditional sex roles and motivation
- health status of inmates prior to, during, and after incarceration
- pre-release anxieties and adjustment factors following incarceration.

Additional information is needed to assess various aspects of the programs and services available in the institutions:

- inmate access to programs and services including medical care, education and counseling
- an evaluation of the quality of programs and services available
- the criteria for hiring, training and evaluating staff in institutions
- community attitudes toward female offenders and how community services can be used more effectively
- the parole needs of women, including the development of criteria other than recidivism to measure success.

It is clear that further research is needed in many areas relating to the female offender; it is equally clear that the data that are available offer some useful guidelines for developing a wide range of program options which are more relevant than many of those that are currently available.

EPILOGUE

During the Spring and early Summer of 1975 when our data were being collected, New York City was "going broke;" Florida voted articles of impeachment against its state Treasurer; South Boston rioted against desegregation of public schools; legislation was pending to close the Colorado Women's Correctional Institution. The Equal Rights Amendment was rejected in North Carolina and Illinois; women inmates in North Carolina staged a full blown riot over working conditions and medical care; the superintendents of women's prisons resigned in the states of Washington, Georgia, and California; the CIA admitted assassination attempts on foreign leaders.

During the analytical phase of our study in late Summer, Autumn and Winter into the Bicentennial year, two women attempted to assassinate the President; a woman was found hanged in an isolation cell in the Georgia prison; a world-wide conference was held in Mexico City to celebrate International Women's Year; Patty Hearst was arrested; oil companies were investigated for illegal activities; women felons in California rioted after all Christmas visits had been cancelled; and the state of Michigan assumed operation of the Detroit House of Corrections.

These were some of the headline stories in newspapers across the country during the two years of our study. And yet, with all the upheaval suggested by these news stories, most of us continued our usual routine. So it is with the criminal justice system. Ever changing yet always the same.

In an effort to determine whether any major changes had occurred since the time of our original data collection (approximately May 1975), we contacted all of the prison administrators one year later, just prior to publication. Specifically, we were interested in identifying changes in inmate population, average length of stay, and major program changes.

POPULATION CHANGE

Between 1975 and 1976, the population of the prisons in our sample increased by 10%. (Table 7.1.1) In eight of the prisons, the population was fairly stable, in three there was a moderate increase, in three there was a large increase, and in two there were large decreases. Those prisons with the largest increase in female population were Indiana, Illinois (Dwight), and Nebraska.

Table 7.1.1 Population Changes in Prisons 1975-1976

PRISONS		Populations		Change	
		1975	1976	(N)	(%)
California		752	756	+4	+1%
New York		356	395	+30	+1%
Illinois	Dwight	146	179	+33	
	Women	101	137	+36	+36%
	Men	45	42	-3	
	Vienna	453	512	+59	
	Women	58	54	-4	-7%
	Men	395	458	+63	
Texas	Goree Unit	662	516	-146	+17%
	Mountain View	-	261	+261	
Florida		519	603	+84	+16%
Michigan		308	363	+55	+18%
Massachusetts		149	140	-9	
	Unsentenced Women	10	18	+8	+20%
	Sentenced Women	80	90	+10	
	Sentenced Men	59	32	-27	
Indiana		89	160	+71	+80%
North Carolina		420	455	+35	+8%
Georgia		377	300	-77	-20%
Minnesota	Shakopee	39	37	-2	-5%
	POPS	15	15	-	
Washington		150	160	+10	+7%
Colorado		80	82	+2	+3%
Nebraska		65	89	+24	+37%
TOTAL		4090	4491	+401	+10%

The most dramatic increase (80%) occurred in Indiana. The assistant superintendent indicated that the increase included misdemeanants and felons in equal proportions and a wide range of offense categories. Nebraska, with a 37% increase, showed no clear cut trends. In Illinois, where the female felon population was very low for the size of the state, there was a statewide increase of 20%, but the additional inmates went to Dwight, increasing the female population there by 36%.

Massachusetts, Michigan, Florida, and Texas experienced increases in female population ranging from 16% to 20%. Again, there was no reported difference in the type of offense behavior of the new admissions. The superintendent in Massachusetts indicated that more women were being convicted for larceny and prostitution. At Rikers Island, where the population was down from 373 to 325 - a typical fluctuation, the superintendent reported an increase in 90-day sentences (for prostitutes) instead of fines, as New York City cleaned up for the July potlitical convention.

A significant decrease in inmate population was noted in Georgia's prison, where population decreased from 377 to 300 inmates. The reason for this decrease was that a new 288-capacity institution was built and the old prison was evacuated; because of the reduced institutional capacity, 100 women were re-assigned to a work-release program in Atlanta. Similarly, the inmate population at the Goree Unit (Texas) decreased by 146 when some women were moved into an institution at Mountain View, which had formerly been used for juveniles. The net result was that Texas had 115 more women in the prison system (17%).

AVERAGE LENGTH OF STAY

Our data indicated that in most prisons women served 13 to 18 months. These data were sometimes estimates or impressions, since many departments did not calculate the average stay on any regular basis. Follow-up contacts in 1976 revealed that nine of 15 administrators could not say whether the average length of stay had increased, although, three of these "felt" it had. Three administrators reported the same length of stay and one reported a decline from 18 months to 14-16 months. Two institutions reported notable increases in length of stay: Nebraska from 14 months to 22 months and California from 18 months in 1974 to 24 months in 1975.

At this point, interpretation becomes critical. The California data are based on parole releases in a given year. During 1975 more offenders who had served long terms were released from the institution than in 1974, as part of an accelerated release policy for serious offenders.[1] This increased the statistic on average length of stay, but did not reflect a change in sentencing policy.

When dealing with such complexities, we require more firm data and analysis to determine trends in time served by women in prison.

INSTITUTIONAL CHANGES

It is probably no accident that two of the lowest-rated prisons in our study are being replaced - Georgia and Michigan. The greatest change over the year occurred in Georgia, where a new institution for women was being constructed during our study and opened in March, 1976. The new women's prison provides a great contrast to the old mental hospital building which formerly served as a prison. The new facility is a campus design with three living units of 48 beds, classrooms, infirmary, recreation areas, etc. A fourth living unit is under construction because unfortunately the institution was over-capacity before it was even built. Beds are double-bunked to increase total capacity from 192 to 384. The staff has nearly doubled in size, and inmates now wear uniforms. The new prison is about two and one-half miles further into the country and away from the rest of the mental hospital.

The state of Michigan is also building a new women's prison in Ypsilanti to replace the old Detroit House of Corrections, which the state took over in December 1975. The new prison is expected to open in mid-1977 and to have a capacity for 210 women, which will probably be increased to 270. It too will have a campus design. The new superintendent of DeHoCo is trying to develop programs which can be transported to the new facility. Parole contract agreements are being instituted. Staff has been increased, especially counseling staff, and the treatment team concept has been introduced on the cottages. Current programs include a K-12 educational program (kindergarten through 12th grade) with emphasis on remedial work and GED, a clerical program, and courses from Schoolcraft Community College. Five or six women have study passes to go to college and others take on-the-job training at Plymouth State Hospital.

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[1] According to the Statistics Section of the California Department of Corrections.

Texas opened a second women's prison at Mountain View in December 1975 to serve the Dallas/Fort Worth area. This prison was formerly a boys' reformatory. Current capacity is 280 to be increased to 336 by 1977. It too is a campus design. This institution has a strong educational emphasis including remedial, academic/GED, college classes, and vocational graphic arts at the college level. There is a small garment shop with 11 operators, where inmates can get their uniforms fitted, in addition to a laundry and two beauty shops. All inmates are still classified at Goree and returned to Goree before release. Inmates can be transferred from one institution to the other for special programs.

Program options have been increased in Illinois (Dwight), Indiana, and North Carolina. Dwight now offers more vocational training, including Emergency Medical Training and Mental Health Technician Training in Child Care. Evening classes and career education are available. North Carolina has introduced a tutoring-child care program. in which inmates care for visiting children to enable husbands and wives to have some time together. North Carolina also has a pre-release program and a community volunteer program with honor grade inmates doing volunteer work in the community. Twenty-four persons from the local community comprise a community advisory council to the prison.

Nebraska has received federal funds for a special education program including achievement and motivation, clerical arts, child development, and interstate work/study release (for inmates who will return to another state).

Washington has started a nursery school for community children, with inmates working as aides and children of inmates able to attend once a week. Inmates in Massachusetts are attending Health Care Education classes and pre-college courses provided by the University of Massachusetts.

In Colorado the prison has adopted an incentive sytem, in which inmates move from the most structured living unit to a medium wing to an honor wing with accompaning increases in responsibility. Honor inmates may go to work and school in the community.

New York, Florida, Illinois (Vienna), Minnesota, and California continue to evidence a broad range of programs and services with no significant changes.

At the local level, Dade County (Florida) is building a multi-million dollar jail. Rikers Island (New York City) introduced a highly successful series of panel discussions involving both male and female inmates. The topics under discussion ranged from criminal justice issues to Black theater. The discussions, held weekly during afternoon count time, attracted about 150 inmates. The women's unit took responsibility for the security of male inmates.

Sybil Brand Institute (Los Angeles County) implemented a new security system, reducing the level of security on many unsentenced women from maximum to medium. The new classifications were based on a point system which has given more freedom to the majority of inmates. At the time of our study, only sentenced inmates had programs available; now these services are duplicated on the unsentenced side. Many of these changes resulted from court orders following a civil rights suit.

The newest trend in community-based programs involves residential facilities for mothers and children. Several programs were started in 1975, including Women's Community Center, YWCA, Seattle, Washington; Women Incorporated, Opiate Drugs, Boston, Massachusetts; and Paga House, New York City, New York. Los Angeles County opened its first work furlough program for women, housing 10 women with a capacity for 30 women.

APPENDIX A

METHODOLOGY

1. Selection of Sample States
2. Selection of Sample Institutions
3. Selection of Inmates Sample
4. Research Instruments
5. Implementation of Research Design
6. Development of Institutional Indices

1. SELECTION OF SAMPLE STATES

In the 48 contiguous states, six distinct patterns of organization of correctional services for the adult female offender were identified. The following table shows the distribution of states by type of institution for female felons:

Type	State
No State Institution (felons sent out-of-state)	N.H. Idaho N.D. Wy. Vt. Mont. S.D.
No State Institution (felons in city facility)	Mich.
Only State-run Institutions	Del. R.I. Conn. N.C.
State & County Institutions	Ark. N.Mex. Iowa Ala. Wash. Ariz. W.Va. Ill. Ga. Nev. Ken. Okla. Ind. N.J. Tex. Utah Miss. S.C. Ore. Mass. Calif. La.
State, County & Municipal Institutions	Colo. Tenn. Pa. Ohio Kan. Mo. Va. N.Y. Minn. Wisc. Fla.
Contract States (felons from other states)	Neb. Maine

In addition to the patterns identified, several states had unique characteristics which had at least potential impact on the type of correctional programs that might be available. Some of the features include co-educational (co-correctional) facilities, central city location of the institution, community-based alternatives to incarceration, etc.

Since the primary purpose of the study was to describe the range and variety of programs available for women throughout the United States, it was decided that a purposive selection of states rather than a probability sample was more appropriate for the study.

The diversity that exists among the states on a number of variables that were considered likely to affect correctional programming makes probability sampling an inappropriate method of selecting states for study since these variables are not randomly distributed among the states.

On the basis of our own analysis of preliminary data and consultation with Dr. Leslie Kish (Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan) and Dr. Wolfgang Grichting (National Assessment of Juvenile Corrections, University of Michigan) a purposive sample was designed.

Tables I to VI show the distribution of states on such variables as size of state, incarceration rates and ethnicity. (Underscoring indicates the states selected for study.) Data on prison populations were derived from the American Correctional Association Directory, 1973; jail data were based on the 1970 Jail Census; general population information was obtained from U.S. Census Reports, 1970.

Table I. Size of State Institution for Women by Size of State

	Size of State Institution for Women					
Size of State (Million)	25 or less	26-50	51-99	101-200	201$^+$	Total
Less than 1.00	N.H.* ID.* Mont.* S.Dak.* N.Dak.* VT.* Wy.* R.I. Del.	Nev. Maine				11
1.00-1.99	W.Va. Utah N. Mex	Neb. Ark. Ariz.				6
2.00-2.99			Miss. Ore. Colo. Kans. Iowa	Okla. S.C.		7
3.00-3.99		Minn.	Ken. Tenn.	Conn. Wash. La. Md. Ala.		8
4.00-5.99			Wisc. Mo.	Ind. Mass.	Ga. Va. N.C.	7
6.00-9.99					N.J. Mich. Fla.	3
10$^+$			Ill.	Pa.	Ohio Tex. N.Y. Calif.	6
Total	12	6	10	10	10	48

*No Institution for Women

Table II. Size of State Institution for Women by Regions

REGION	SIZE OF STATE INSTITUTION						
	0	25 or less	26-50	51-100	101-200	201^{+}	Total
Eastern Seaboard	N.H. Vt.	R.I. Del. W.Va.	Maine		Mass. Conn. Md. Pa.	N.Y. N.J. Va.	13
Mid-West	N.D. Wy. Mont. S.D.	Utah	Neb. Minn.	Ill. Wisc. Colo. Kans. Iowa Mo.	Ind.	Mich. Ohio	16
South		N.Mex.	Ark.	Miss. Ken. Tenn.	Ala. S.C. La. Okla.	Ga. N.C. Tex. Fla.	13
West	Idaho		Nev. Ariz.	Ore.	Wash.	Calif.	6
Total	7	5	6	10	10	10	48

Table III. Women Jail Population by Women Prison Population

WOMEN IN JAIL	WOMEN IN STATE PRISON						
	25 or less	26-50	51-100	101-200	201-300	301^+	Total
25 or less	Wy. N.D. S.D. Mont. Del. Idaho R.I. N.H. Vt.	Maine	Iowa	Conn.			12
26-50	N.Mex. Utah W.Va.	Neb. Ark. Minn.	Kans.	Mass.			8
51-100		Nev.	Ore. Colo. Miss. Wisc. Tenn. Ken.	Okla. S.C.			8
101-199		Ariz.	Mo.	Wash. Ala. La. Md. Ind.	N.J. Mich.	N.C.	11
200-299			Ill.	Pa.	Ga. Va.	Ohio	5
300^+						Fla. Tex. N.Y. Calif.	4
Total	12	6	10	10	4	6	48

Table IV. Jail to Prison Population Ratios for Women

RATIO	STATES	TOTAL[1]
.00-.24	R.I.* Conn.* Del.* Maine	4
.25-.49	Iowa N.C.	2
.50-.74	N.J. Wisc. S.C.	3
.75-.99	Tex. Ohio Mich. Mass. Ind. Va. Ga. Wash. Neb. Minn. Okla. Kans.	13
1.00-1.24	Md. Ala. Miss. Ore. Ark. Colo.	6
1.25-1.49	Mo. Tenn. La. Utah	4
1.50-1.99	Pa. W.Va. Fla.	3
2.00-2.49	N.Y. Ariz. Nev.	3
2.50-2.99	Calif. N. Mex.	2
3.00-3.49	Ill.	1
Total		41

Avg. 1.17
Med. .94

*No Local Jails.

[1] Seven states have no women's facility. Total inmate population of those states is approximately 15 women in prisons and 50 women in jails. Alaska and Hawaii were excluded because of location.

Table V. State Crime Rate by Percentage of Crime in Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas

Percent Crime in SMSA'S	CRIME RATE PER 100,000			
	1000-1999	2000-2999	3000$^+$	Total
54 or less	N.H. Vt. Maine N.D. S.D. Mont. Miss.	Idaho		8
55-69	N.C. W.Va. Ken. Ark. Iowa Wy.	S.C. Ga. Kans.	N.Mex.	10
70-84	Ala. Wisc. Neb.	Ind. Tenn. La. Minn. Okla.	Ariz. Colo. Ore. R.I. Wash. Del.	14
85$^+$	Pa.	Tex. Mo. Ill. Va. Ohio Conn. Utah	N.Y. Mass. Calif. Fla. N.J. Mich. Nev. Md.	16
Total	17	16	15	48

Source: *Uniform Crime Reports*, F.B.I., 1972

Table VI. Black Women as a Proportion of Women in the Population by State and Region

REGION	Percentage of Blacks				TOTAL
	5 or less	6-10	11-15	16^+	
Eastern Seaboard	N.H. Vt. R.I. Conn. W.Va. Mass. Maine	Pa. N.J.	Del. N.Y.	Md. Va.	13
Mid-West	N.D. S.D. Mont. Neb. Kans. Iowa Wy. Utah Minn. Colo. Wisc.	Ohio Mich. Ind. Mo.	Ill.		16
South	N.Mex.	Fla. Okla. Ken.	La. Tenn. Tex.	Ala. Ark. Ga. N.C. S.C. Miss.	13
West	Idaho Nev. Ariz. Ore. Wash.	Calif.			6
Total	24	10	6	8	48

The final selection of the sample states was made with the approval of the National Institute, LEAA. The states, ranked in descending order on the basis of the size of the female population 18 and over are listed below along with one or more of the unique features identified in the preliminary analysis.[1]

State	Unique Features
California	Highest rate of jail incarceration for women.
New York	Second most populous state; ethnic diversity.
Texas	Largest state geographically.
Illinois	Below average incarceration rate.
Michigan	No state prison for women; state prisoners boarded at Detroit House of Corrections.
Florida	Above average incarceration rate.
Massachusetts	First co-correctional state prison.
Indiana	Prison located in major city.
North Carolina	Prison houses all sentenced women, 16 and over.
Georgia	Until 1972 women's prison was administered by Department of Mental Health; institution is located on the grounds of Central State Mental Hospital.
Minnesota	Strong trend toward community-based corrections.
Washington	Reputedly most progressive institution for women.
Colorado	Women's prison is separate unit of larger male institution.
Nebraska	Boards prisoners from four other states.

[1] The basic data on which these preliminary decisions were made come from three major sources: the ACA Directory for 1973, the 1970 Jail Census, which was the most current available data in the Fall of 1974, and materials requested from the Departments of Corrections in all 50 states.

The study states include approximately 52% of the female population 18 years and over in the United States. In terms of incarcerated women, the study states account for about 66% of all women in jails and prisons.

Sample States as a Proportion of United States Populations

	Total U.S.	Sample States	% of Total
Female Population 18 and over (1975)[1]	74,005,000	38,810,000	52.4
Female State Prison Populations (1974)[2]	5,960	3,912	65.6
Female Jail Population[3]	7,539	4,965	65.8
Total Incarcerated Women	13,499	8 877	65.8

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[1] Current Population Reports, Population Estimates and Projections, Series P-25 No. 616, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

[2] National Prisoner Statistics Program, National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration.

[3] National Jail Census, 1970, National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service, Series SC-No. 1, February, 1971., Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. The Michigan jail figure was reduced by 200 who were counted as prisoners in the prison figures.

Dr. Malcolm Klein, Department of Sociology, U.S.C. in his review of the draft report commented,

> With respect to facilities sampling, the authors have chosen the more "political" over representational approach. ...The "political" solution is to select major universe segments thought to be particularly appropriate to the aims of the project. This, like other forms of purposive sampling, endangers generalizability but satisfies most audiences who might be critical of findings. The strength of the Glick et al. purposive sample is that it went so far in the "political" sense that it included a very substantial proportion of the universe of facilities and probably a higher proportion of the universe of incarcerated women. Thus we can be less concerned about generalizability because so many cases have been included in the study. Still, there is probably a bias in the direction of large facilities and populous states.

2. SELECTION OF SAMPLE INSTITUTIONS

Prisons and Jails

In each of he 14 sample states, the study population was defined as follows:

1. all state prisons housing women;
2. all county jails meeting the following criteria:
    a. county-size of 250,000 or more;
    b. female jail population of 15 or more[1] (20 or more in California).

The survey included the state prisons for women, the jails in major counties, and selected community-based programs. Most states had only one women's prison; Illinois had two facilities housing both males and females; Minnesota had a separate unit for women property offenders in a juvenile institution. A total of 16 prisons were included in the sample.

Between the sample design and the data collection phase, several changes occurred which affected the sample institutions.

1. The two sample jails in Massachusetts had transferred all female inmates to the Massachusetts Correctional Institution at Framingham, thus eliminating Massachusetts jails from the study.
2. Wake County (230,000) in North Carolina was substituted for Guilford County because Guilford was phasing out its jail section for women.
3. In spite of very small inmate populations, the county jails in Minneapolis and St. Paul, Minnesota were retained in the sample because of the significance of the major urban area in Minnesota. The Minneapolis Workhouse, housing sentenced women from both counties, was added to the sample.

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[1] As reported in the 1973 ACA Directory of Juvenile and Adult Correctional Agencies, or in a few cases as estimates from total male and female populations.

4. The Duval County Jail in Florida, which was under a federal law suit, was eliminated from the sample because most of the women had been transferred elsewhere.

A total of 46 jails were included in the study sample. For a complete list of study institutions, see Appendix B, pp. 249-251.

Community-based Programs

The field consultant in each state was asked to identify community-based programs for women, primarily in the study counties. For this purpose information came from a variety of sources, including the state planning agency, corrections and probation departments, and other correctional personnel. The consultant made a preliminary contact with each program director to ascertain the type of program and the number of women involved. Since our purpose in studying community-based programs was to describe as broad a range of program types and services available to women as possible, we selected programs in the following way:

1. In those states where only one or two programs existed, all were included in the study;
2. in states with more programs where there was wider selection, we endeavored to select unique programs, as well as programs similar to those operating in other states;
3. in co-correctional facilities, those with larger female populations took priority;
4. because of time constraints, community-based programs in California were not included in the study.

The following table presents the programs identified and studied in each state; for a complete list of the selected programs included in the study, see Appendix B, pp. 252-253.

Table VII Community-based Programs Identified and Studied in Each State

	Work-Release Programs for Women			
State[1]	Programs Identified	Total Women in Programs	Programs Studied	Total Women in Programs
California	3	50	0	0
New York	2	38	1	35
Illinois	1	18	1	18
Florida	7	84	2	28
Massachusetts	1	9	1	9
North Carolina	2	15	1	8
Georgia	1	60	1	62
Washington	1	5	1	3
Nebraska	1	6	1	6
Total	19	285	9	169

[1] Texas, Michigan, Indiana, Minnesota, and Colorado had no work-release programs in the Spring of 1975.

	Residential Programs for Women[1]			
State[2]	Programs Identified	Estimated[3] Number Involved	Programs Studied	Women in Residence
California	27	246	0	0
New York	10	105	3	35
Texas	3	54	2	42
Michigan	2	50	2	57
Florida	5	56	5	30
Indiana	1	6	1	6
North Carolina	1	6	1	6
Georgia	2	11	1	5
Minnesota	5	29	5	36
Washington	10	51	4	29
Colorado	2	9	2	9
Nebraska	1	6	1	7
Total	70	629	27	262

[1] This includes halfway houses, drug, and alcohol programs.

[2] No operational programs of this type were identified in Illinois or Massachusetts in the Spring of 1975.

[3] Estimates were made for several programs when the precise number of women involved was not given.

3. SELECTION OF INMATE SAMPLE

The inmate sampling design was based on the identified universe of 46 jails in the study counties and 16 women's prisons in the study states. Community-based programs were not included in the inmate sampling design for the following reasons:

1. the "universe" of programs was not definitive;
2. the anticipated small numbers of women in scattered and diverse programs could not be reliably sampled;
3. time constraints did not permit the efforts required for such a study.

Sampling Method[1]

The type of sample drawn was a disproportionate systematic stratified sample, where the strata were as follows: 48 single institutions, 5 pairs of jails, and one jail triple. Jail combinings[2] were effected in the four states of New York, Illinois, Texas and Florida for reasons of economy. Of the four, all but Illinois are characterized by large female inmate populations distributed among several jails. New York, Texas, and, most particularly, Florida appeared to require an effort substantially exceeding the funds budgeted.

The effect of these combinings was to reduce from 540 to 440 the total number of respondents to be drawn from the four states. Slightly more than half this modest reduction was achieved in Florida alone.

[1] This section on sampling method was written by Frank V. Many, consulting statistician, Survey Research Center, University of California, Berkeley.

[2] The result of these combinings is that the combined inmate data cannot be related to individual jail characteristics on which the jails in a combination vary.

NOTATION

Symbol	Definition
$=$	approximately equal
h	the stratum subscript ($h = 1,\ldots,54$)
N_h	the female inmate population of stratum h
n_h	the initial computed female inmate sample from stratum h
$f_h = n_h/.85N_h$	the computed sampling fraction for stratum h
$F_h = 1/f_h$	the computed sampling interval for stratum h
P	a population proportion
$Q = 1-P$	
p,q	sample estimates of the population values of P and Q
$S = \sqrt{NPQ/(N-1)}$	population standard deviation of a dichotomous variable
$S_p = \sqrt{(S^2/n)(N-n/N} = \sqrt{PQ(N-n/(n(N-1))}$,	the standard deviation of the estimated proportion, with (N-n/N being the finite population correction when sampling without replacement
$CV_p = S_p/P = \sqrt{Q(N-n)/(nP(N-1))}$,	the coefficient of variation of the estimated proportion

Sample Size Criterion

The criterion adopted for determining within-stratum sample size was that the sample estimate of the proportion of an institution's population with a given characteristic, p_h, should not differ from the true value of the population proportion, P_h, by more than some fraction ($d_h/P_h = D$) or percent of that true value. Formally, we want a sample n_h, such that

$$\Pr\left\{(p-P)/P \geq d/P\right\} \leq \alpha, \qquad \text{(eq. 1)}$$

where α is a probability, say .05.

The statistic which measures the variation in the estimated proportion relative to the true value of P is the coefficient of variation, CV_p. For sampling without replacement from a finite population,

$$CV_p = \sqrt{Q(N-n)/(nP(N-1))}. \qquad \text{(eq. 2)}$$

It was decided to set $CV_p = .25$ so that $\Pr\left\{P/2 \leq p \leq 3P/2\right\} = .95$; that is, to find sample sizes such that not more than 5% of the time will the true P values be outside the range of ±50% of the estimated P values as long as the value of P = 1/5. Furthermore (see Table 3.2, page 53, Cochran[1]), for a fixed sample size, $CV_{p(P=.5)}$ is only half of $CV_{p(P=.2)}$ and $CV_{p(P=.8)}$ is only a fourth of $CV_{p(P=.2)}$. Specifically, a sample size, which results in $CV_p = .25$ assuming $P = .2$, will have $CV_p = .125$ if $P = .5$, and $CV_p = .0625$ if $P = 8$.

Setting $CV_p = .25$ and $P = .2$ in eq. 2 and solving for n_h, we obtain

$$n_h = N_h\ (64/(63 + N_h)). \qquad \text{(eq. 3)}$$

Dividing through by N_h results in the basic formual

$$f_h = 1/F_h = n_h/.85N_h = (64/(63 + N_h))/.85 \qquad \text{(eq. 4)}$$

where f_h is the sampling fraction and F_h is the systematic selection interval with the 1/.85 factor added to allow for "unbiasing" field losses.[2]

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[1] William G. Cochran, Sampling Techniques, 2nd edition, Wiley, 1963.

[2] Reductions in sample size resulting from change in population size or "random" non-response will affect only the precision of the resulting estimates. Other losses, such as refusals, may be linked to particular population characteristics. No "safety" factor can compensate for the resulting biased sample. Sometimes all that one can do is to alter the description of the population being studied.

Case Weights

The sample design consisted of selecting systematically some fraction, f_i, of women inmates in each jail and prison under study in the 14 states. Case weights were the reciprocals of the individual institution's sampling fraction adjusted for within-institution non-response.

$f_i = \frac{n_i}{N_i}$, where n_i is the number selected for interviewing and N_i is the total number of inmates.

Then $W_i = \frac{1}{f_i} \times \frac{n_i}{n_i^*} = \frac{N_i}{n_i} \times \frac{n_i}{n_i^*} = \frac{N_i}{n_i^*}$, where n_i^* is the number successfully interviewed.

The following tables present both the sample design and the actual field results.

Table VIII. Sample Design and Field Results by Institution

Institution	ESTIMATES		ACTUAL FIELD RESULTS				
					SAMPLE		
	Population	Sample	Population	Fraction	Selected	Interviewed	Weight
CALIFORNIA							
Institution for Women	640	71	752	1/9	82	70	10.74
Sybil Brand (L.A.)	840	74	740	1/10	74	53	13.96
Orange	84	42	63	2/3	42	31	2.03
San Diego	115	51	62	3/5	38	32	1.94
Alameda	100	45	85	5/11	40	32	2.66
Santa Clara	100	45	82	1/2	41	33	2.48
San Francisco	60	36	33	1.00	33	25	1.32
San Bernardino	60	36	43	2/3	28	24	1.79
Sacramento	80	43	61	3/5	36	28	2.18
San Mateo	30	24	25	1.00	25	23	1.09
Ventura	36	27	36	1.00	36	34	1.06
San Joaquin	34	27	19	1.00	19	15	1.27
NEW YORK							
Bedford Hills	450	75	365	1/5	73	50	7.30
Rikers Island	480	80	373	1/5	73	36	10.36
Monroe	30	20	34	2/3	22	14	2.43
Erie	18	12	33		21	15	2.20
Erie Penitentiary			16	1.00	16	14	1.14
Nassau	23	16	22	7/10	14	12	1.83
Westchester	20	14	18		12	12	1.50

Table VIII. Continued

	ESTIMATES		ACTUAL FIELD RESULTS				
					SAMPLE		
Institution	Population	Sample	Population	Fraction	Selected	Interviewed	Weight
TEXAS							
Goree Unit	640	71	662	1/9	73	73	9.07
Harris	200	57	133	2/7	59	46	2.89
Bexar	35	26	33	3/4	25	23	1.43
Dallas	50	27	124	5/9	54	44	2.82
Tarrant	28	15	31		15	13	2.38
ILLINOIS							
Dwight	75	41	101	2/5	40	37	2.73
Vienna	30	24	58	3/5	33	31	1.87
Cook	160	53	160	1/3	0	0	-
Dupage	30	10	1	1.00	1	0	-
MICHIGAN							
Detroit Ho. of Corr.	315	63	308	1/5	0	0	-
Oakland	40	28	35	7/10	26	26	1.35
Kent	40	28	30	7/10	20	20	1.50
Wayne	29	23	42	7/10	29	29	1.45
FLORIDA							
F.C.I.	440	73	429	1/6	69	61	7.03
Pre-Release Center	-	-	90	2/5	37	35	2.57

Table VIII. Continued

	ESTIMATES		ACTUAL FIELD RESULTS				
					SAMPLE		
Institution	Population	Sample	Population	Fraction	Selected	Interviewed	Weight
Dade	74	29	115	5/16	37	35	3.29
Broward	25	10	45	2/5	17	17	2.65
Palm Beach	25	10	23		10	9	2.56
Duval	50	33	0	-	-	-	-
Hillsborough	60	30	58	1/2	30	29	2.00
Pinellas	20	10	36		17	17	2.12
Orange	20	18	20	1.00	20	20	1.00
MASSACHUSETTS							
Framingham	140	70	80	4/5	58	21	3.81
unsentenced	-	-	10	1.00	10	7	1.43
Suffolk	20	20	0	-	-	-	-
Middlesex	10	10	0	-	-	-	-
INDIANA							
Women's Prison	97	48	89	1/2	44	26	3.42
Marion	20	20	31	1.00	31	26	1.19
Lake	20	20	8	1.00	8	6	1.33
NORTH CAROLINA							
Correctional Center	415	75	420	2/11	74	68	6.18
Mecklenberg	20	20	15	1.00	15	15	1.00
Guilford	10	10	0	-	-	-	-
Wake	-	-	4	1.00	4	4	1.00

Table VIII. Continued

Institution	ESTIMATES		ACTUAL FIELD RESULTS				
					SAMPLE		
	Population	Sample	Population	Fraction	Selected	Interviewed	Weight
GEORGIA							
Milledgeville	285	71	377	1/5	75	54	6.98
Fulton	50	40	60	4/5	49	30	2.00
DeKalb	15	15	21	1.00	21	10	2.10
MINNESOTA							
Shakopee	50	50	39	2/5	17	17	2.29
POPs Program	-	-	15	1/3	5	5	3.00
Hennepin	13	13	9	1.00	9	9	1.00
Ramsey	10	10	5	1.00	5	5	1.00
Minn. Workhouse	-	-	15	1.00	-	-	-
WASHINGTON							
Purdy	170	57	150	1/3	51	39	3.85
King	50	33	45	2/3	30	24	1.88
Spokane	18	18	22	1.00	22	14	1.57
COLORADO							
Institution	65	65	54	1.00	54	26	2.08
Denver	24	24	21	1.00	21	19	1.11
NEBRASKA							
Center for Women	50	50	53	1.00	53	53	1.00
Douglas	20	20	11	1.00	11	11	1.00

Field Loss

Three institutions did not permit the field consultant to select a systematic sample of inmates--the Detroit House of Corrections, the Women's Division of Cook County Department of Corrections in Chicago, and the Minneapolis Workhouse. The Dupage County Jail (Illinois) housed only one woman who did not speak English and was not interviewed. As a result, our sample does not include 1) sentenced felons in Michigan, 2) sentenced misdemeanants from Detroit, 3) jail inmates in Illinois, and 4) sentenced misdemeanants in Minnesota.

Where discrepancies were found between assumed and actual number of inmates, sampling fractions were adjusted, but in a few instances the sampling fraction applied was too low, for example, in the two Minnesota prisons. The sample was also affected by non-response.

The overall field loss of selected inmates was 19.6%, thus exceeding the safety factor of 15% provided in the sampling design. By recomputing the coefficient of variation (CV_p) assuming $p = .2$, the actual CV_p distribution was as follows:

	Value of CV_p				
	= .25	.26-.29	.30-.34	.35+	(N)
Prisons	7	4	1	3	(15)
Jails	22	15	4	2	(43)
Total	29	19	5	5	(58)

Half of the institutions met the design criterion completely, but for 9% the CV_p value was quite high, at or above .35. It is important to stress that the strength of the sampling design actually exceeded the analytical use of the data. Although the sample was designed to permit institution-by-institution analysis, the analysis was actually done on a state-by-state basis, with the added variable of criminal justice status. Consequently, jail data were always analyzed in combination, except for Colorado and Nebraska with only one jail each and adequate sample size. When jail samples are combined for each state, the coefficient of variation is usually reduced to the desired .25 level.

For data on felons, however, a single prison was the primary source of data in all but two states. We must, therefore, view with some caution, the felony data from Minnesota (CV_p = .33 for both prisons) and Indiana (CV_p = .33); and all data from Massachusetts, unsentenced (CV_p = .44) and sentenced (CV_p = .35).

The following tables show the distribution of the sample compared with total population data supplied by the prison on two variables in the major prisons with a loss rate which exceeded the safety factor (Indiana, Massachusetts, and Minnesota), or where the consultant expressed concern about inmate resistance (Indiana and Colorado).

It must be remembered that the sample was designed so that for a sample institutional proportion of .2 the probability would be .95 that the true institutional value lay between .1 and .3. For higher proportions the variation of the estimate would improve, but the sample was not designed to obtain accurate estimates for very small groups, such as 5% - 15%.

Table IX Ethnic Distribution of True Population and Sample Population in Selected Prisons

	ETHNIC GROUP				
Selected Prisons	Black	White	Indian	Hispanic	(N)
Indiana					
Population (Undated)	52%	47%	--	1%	(106)
Study Sample	42%	54%	--	4%	(89)
Massachusetts					
Population - 1974	51%	43%	--	6%	(76)
Study Sample	46%	44%	5%	4%	(90)
Minnesota					
Population - 1975	14%	76%	8%	2%	(62)
Study Sample	14%	69%	17%	--	(52)
Colorado					
Population - 1975	34%	43%	1%	22%	(79)
Study Sample	35%	31%	19%	15%	(54)

Ethnic definitions were not absolutely comparable, since Hispanic women on the questionnaire identified themselves as Hispanic, while institutional records often listed them as Black or White. Inmates were also more likely to identify themselves as Indian than were the institutions. In the larger ethnic groups, where the proportion exceeded 20%, the sample estimates were within the range specified by the design.

Table X Offense Distribution of True Population and Sample Population in Selected Prisons

	OFFENSE GROUP				
Selected Prisons	Violent	Property	Drugs	Other	(N)
Indiana					
Population (Undated)	29%	30%	16%	25%	(106)
Study Sample	16%	33%	17%	33%	(89)
Massachusetts					
Population - 1974	38%	28%	16%	18%	(76)
Study Sample	40%	38%	12%	9%	(90)
Minnesota					
Population - 1975	36%	58%	3%	3%	(62)
Study Sample	30%	59%	--	11%	(54)
Colorado					
Population - 1975	18%	51%	23%	8%	(81)
Study Sample	16%	61%	23%	--	(54)

The only notably divergent data on sample/population differences in terms of offense are from Indiana; where violent offenders were apparently underrepresented in the study sample. In combination with ethnic data, it appears that the Indiana sample loss may have excluded from the sample a disproportionate number of Black violent offenders.

In jails the instability of the jail population accounted for about one-half of the non-response loss; selected inmates were unavailable because of court appearances or release on bail, (sometimes while filling out the questionnaire). In some cases, inmates refused to participate, were too sick, or were in isolation (although isolates were often allowed to participate).

In a few institutions, the non-response rate was increased by the lack of an accurate inmate roster. Escapees were sometimes retained on the roster as part of the population for years after their disappearance; sometimes selected inmates could not be found anywhere in the institution; and in one case, the name of one notorious offender appeared in our sample when it was common knowledge that she was out on bail. (In this case, the sample was redrawn from an up-dated roster.)

In general, field losses may be related as much to administrative policy and level of interest as to individual inmate decisions. The highest losses occurred 1) in a prison where inmates schedule much of their own time; 2) in a small southern jail where the consultant was not permitted to enter the cell area and had to give the questionnaire through the bars; 3) in a large metropolitan jail (more like a prison in terms of size, programs and architecture) where inmates were expected to go to the interview room on their own when their names were called; and 4) two prisons with problems involving minority groups, which may have affected participation in the survey.

In small, maximum security settings, the inmates usually had little else to do and seemed to welcome the opportunity to interact with an outsider. They were also readily accessible in closely confined areas.

For several reasons it was not possible to do a post-sampling study on whether non-respondents differed from respondents. The very problems in institutional record-keeping which have already been discussed meant that data on individuals or total populations were not uniformly or readily available. The following report came from our Georgia consultant:

> In the Fulton County Jail package there is no offense record chart. I tried to get it filled out - even partially - but they could not even tell me what the current population was being held for. The Matrons have no record. The charges are kept downstairs alphabetically by all inmates. They would have to dig through 900 records to pull out 60 women. This seems to be the procedure in all Georgia County jails.

At the prison in Massachusetts, where new legislation protected the inmate from invasion of privacy, we were not allowed to see the names on the inmate sampling list, let alone follow up on those who did not respond voluntarily.

4. RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Data on the Criminal Justice System

Forms were designed to collect information at the state and local level in the following areas: 1) female arrests by offense, race, and age; 2) court dispositions by sex; 3) pre-trial diversion for women; and 4) probation/parole data by sex and race. As discussed in the section on criminal justice statistics, information gathered in these areas was sometimes incomplete and by no means uniform.

1. The most common source of arrest data was the Uniform Crime reporting system, both at the local and state level. Some states had centralized procedures for collecting these data; for other states the data came directly from the FBI.

2. Data on court dispositions by sex and offense were only available in California. State penal codes were the usual source of information on sentence length by offense, providing minimum-maximum ranges. However, this type of information was too general for the purposes of our study, so we have not used it in our report. Information on average time served by offense was rarely available.

3. Information was gathered, usually at the local court level, on bail practices, release on own recognizance, and pre-trial diversion programs, with emphasis on the involvement of women clients. Some diversion programs had statistics available, but most of these data were impressionistic.

4. A form was developed for recording statistics by sex and race of persons on probation and parole at the local and state level. Racial information was usually not available; sometimes data on women were not separate from total figures. The complexity of probation/parole systems exceeded our expectations. In some states probation is a state-run system; in others, parole is state-wide, but probation operates at the District Court, the county, or the city level. Consequently, it was not possible to relate probation and parole data to incarceration data, as we had planned.

Institutional Data Collection

Research instruments were developed to collect data from the following sources: institutional administrators, program staff, and directors of community-based programs. Preliminary visits were made to prisons in three states, five jails in Arizona and California, and several community-based programs. These visits served several purposes: to explore the range and variety of facilities and programs; to isolate relevant variables, and to receive input from staff and inmates on the focus of the research. In addition, staff reviewed materials on women's programs from all states as well as existing literature on women's prisons and jails in particular and correctional programs in general.

Based on preliminary findings, the staff developed the following instruments for use in prisons and jails:

--Observation Schedule: completed by field interviewers after several visits to the institution;

--Administrator Questionnaire: left with the administrator for completion;

--Administrator Interview: conducted with the superintendent, warden, director, or deputy in charge;

--Program Interviews: conducted with the person designated by the administrator as having primary responsibility for each of the following program areas: Intake, Counseling/Treatment, Health Care, Education including academic and vocational training, Work-Release, Work Assignments including industries, Religious Programs, Recreation, Food Services, and Volunteers.

--Staff Questionnaires: completed voluntarily by those program staff who were interviewed.

The observation schedule was also used in community-based programs in addition to the Community-based Interview conducted with the administrator of that facility.

Inmate Data Collection

The inmate questionnaire was designed to gather self-reported information on background characteristics, offense history, work history, and program experience of incarcerated offenders. In addition, inmates were asked to respond to 26 items which explored their attitudes toward work, traditional sex roles, other women, and their own feelings of self-esteem.

Most items were pre-coded but those involving occupational information and program evaluation were open-ended.

In a "comments" section at the end of the questionnaire, inmates were encouraged to add information about their experiences in the institution which they wanted to share with the researchers.

Preliminary drafts of the questionnaires were pre-tested in several California jails. During these preliminary testing sessions, inmates were asked to react to the questions that were asked, with special attention focused on the wording of the items. A revised form was developed and pre-tested in the Arizona State Prison and the Maricopa County Jail in Phoenix. This form underwent a similar revision in which several additional items were modified and some of the attitudinal items were discarded when they failed to differentiate among inmates.

The attitudinal items were compiled from several sources and no norms have ever been established for this particular set of items. The purpose for including them was to see how the inmates' responses matched the anticipated responses based on information about the female offender that appears in the literature.

Self-reporting as a method of collecting inmate data is suspect among many people. We were warned that the women would try to "con" us. It should be noted, that self-reporting is a very common method of providing information--from census data to medical histories to job applications. Even the data in the inmate's file comes, largely, from the inmate herself.

Our experience with the responses to the questionnaire did not bear out the fears that had been expressed. Not only were most of the women willing to answer all the questions, many added information to pre-coded items to make their answers more precise, (such as writing in "step-father" in place of father where it applied). Many of the inmates signed their names (even though they were not asked to), and more than half of the women wrote comments at the end. Perhaps the cooperation and enthusiasm of the women is best expressed by an inmate in a small county jail,

> I doubt any of this will help (state deleted) prisons much, but on the odd chance, here is my 30 minute contribution. Hang in there--

5. IMPLEMENTATION OF RESEARCH DESIGN

Selecting and Training Field Consultants

After the states were selected, a preliminary contact was made by telephone to the director of the criminal justice planning agency in each state. This initial contact served three primary purposes:

1. to publicize the project;
2. to gain support in getting permission to include the state in the study;
3. to get the names of people who might be interested in working on the project in a consultant capacity.

The initial phone call was followed by a formal letter explaining in detail the goals of the study, and including a summary of the initial phone call.

In general, the procedures for getting the approval of each state department of corrections were handled directly by the state criminal justice planning agency. (In a few states the process was decidedly more complex.) Ultimately all of the states gave us permission.

An initial visit by one of the project staff was made to each state to interview prospective consultants who had been recommended to us through the state criminal justice planning agency, department of corrections, or any one of a number of other formal and informal channels.

When all the consultants were selected, a three-day training session was held in Nashville, Tennessee. This site was chosen since it was not in one of the study states and the superintendent of the Tennessee Institution for Women had agreed to let us use that institution for on-site observation on the second day of training. The training session was designed to provide a common frame of reference for studying correctional facilities, uniform use of terminology, and a standard approach to data collection. The training also included a review of the entire packet of data collection instruments, a discussion of interviewing techniques, suggested scheduling of activities and protocol in establishing contacts.

Following the visit to the institution, each consultant completed an observation schedule. This preliminary information from each consultant enabled the staff to assess possible directions of bias that might be present in the actual field data. In addition, the training experience oriented the consultants to use of the research instruments for their home states. During the sessions project staff were able to observe the interactions of the consultants with both staff and inmates of the institution.

Data Collection Procedures

The field consultant was to visit each institution at least two or three times. On the first visit, a tour of the facility was arranged and a questionnaire was left with the administrator to be completed and returned to the consultant during a subsequent visit to the institution. The administrator provided the names of persons in charge of the ten specific program areas who were to be interviewed and preliminary scheduling of these interviews began. Arrangements were made for selecting an inmate sample according to prescribed guidelines. The administrator was interviewed after the questionnaire had been completed.

Since not all programs were found in every institution, particularly in jails, the complete program packet was not always used. In some institutions, the administrator supplied program information. If the person in charge were new to the assignment, he or she could not always answer all of the questions, so data were sometimes incomplete.

Specific information was not always available, especially where the exact number of program participants was requested. Racial data on inmates were often unavailable as a matter of policy.

Although the data collection instruments were designed to insure uniformity in reporting, and the field consultants were trained as a team to observe and interview, the information that was gathered may be subject to some of the biases and inconsistencies inherent in any descriptive study. Not only does each individual perceive the world through his/her own eyes, but perspectives change as one is exposed to events over time. In order to overcome some of these problems, the project staff visited each of the state institutions as well as several of the jails and community-based programs for women during the course of the study. These independent visits enabled the project staff to assess the consistency of the observational data in light of their personal experiences. Numerous cross check items were also included in the data collection instruments.

Inmates were selected systematically according to sampling ratios established on the basis of the estimated size of the institution. When the number of inmates differed by 10% from the estimate, a new ratio was determined by the project staff before the sample was drawn. Each institution was assigned a random number for the first inmate selection, and thereafter, the --nth inmate was selected, depending on the assigned sampling ratio. No replacements were allowed. The selection was made from alphabetical or sequential inmate lists just prior to the administration of the questionnaire.

The consultant administered the questionnaire to small groups of inmates, usually in a day room or other central area. Occasionally, inmates in isolation or solitary confinement were interviewed singly. In a few cases, inmates with reading or visual problems were also interviewed alone. In such cases, the consultant read the questionnaire aloud, wrote in the response for the inmate, and noted on the questionnaire that it had been administered in that way.

The literature on the female offender led us to believe that we would encounter a substantial number of women who could not read; therefore, the questionnaire was designed to be administered orally to all inmates. The instructions to the consultants were to explain that the questions were being read aloud to insure uniformity in administering the questionnaire. Despite that explanation, most of the women requested that they be permitted to proceed at their own pace, and the consultant assumed the role of monitor, clarifying items when necessary.

The purpose of the study was explained to the inmates who had been selected and they were also assured that their responses would be kept confidential. No identifiying information was recorded on the form, although some inmates actually signed their names. About 50 inmates who were not selected asked to take the questionnaire. They were allowed to do so, but they were not included in the sample. The cover letter to the questionnaire was given to the inmates at the conclusion of the interview. No attempt was made to coerce an individual to participate.

Most of the data were collected during April, May and June 1975. Data collection in Illinois and New York was extended through July because the original consultants in these states left the project and replacements had to be hired and trained. In one California jail, data collection was not completed until August. This jail had been used for pretesting the questionnaire in January and we wanted to allow sufficient time for the population to change before we went back to give the questionnaire again.

6. DEVELOPMENT OF INSTITUTIONAL INDICES

The Observation Schedule was designed to collect information on the physical and social environments of institutions. From these data additive indices were constructed to differentiate institutions on several dimensions.

Physical Adequacy Index

Individual aspects of physical space and condition were rated and then combined in the Physical Adequacy Index. The Physical Space score was based on 30 items, covering five major areas: overall design, size of common areas[1], size of living units, type of living units, and ratio of sanitary facilities to capacity. Each type of common area (as many as 18 common areas) was rated on a three-point scale for functional space; each type of living unit (as many as 7 types) was also rated. The modal scores of common areas and living units was then used in the Index, since the modal score captures the predominant atmosphere of the institution without giving undue weight to an atypical unit, such as an honor wing or isolation cells. The five major areas were scored as follows:

1. Design

    1 = campus
    2 = group of buildings
    3 = one building
    4 = part or section of building

2. Modal Space of Common areas[1]

    1 = roomy
    2 = functional
    3 = too small, too large

3. Modal Space of Living units

    1 = roomy
    2 = functional
    3 = too small, too large

4. Majority type of living units

    1 = individual cells
    2 = two women cells
    3 = multi-women cells
    4 = dorms

5. Sinks, toilets, and showers were rated using the following scores:

    1 = one per each bed
    2 = one per 2 to 6 beds
    3 = one per 7 to 12 beds
    4 = one per 13 to 19 beds
    5 = one per 20+ beds

---

[1] Common Areas: Lobby, kitchen, dining room, commissary, library, classrooms, infirmary, etc.

The Physical Condition score was derived from 32 items covering five major aspects: exterior condition, overall interior environment, condition of common areas, condition of living units, and furnishings. Scores were assigned as follows:

1. Exterior Condition

    1 = excellent, new, clean, new paint, well maintained
    2 = average
    3 = repairs needed, dirty, run down

2. Interior Condition
   Overall Environment

    A. Ventilation

        1 = windows, air conditioning, fresh air
        2 = average
        3 = stagnant, stuffy, no ventilation

    B. Temperature

        1 = comfortable
        2 = too cold or too hot

    C. Lighting

        1 = outdoor light through windows,.or good placement of indoor lights
        2 = average
        3 = too bright or too dim or dark

    D. Noise

        1 = not noticeable
        2 = too loud or too quiet

    E. Smell

        1 = not noticeable
        2 = noticeable

3. Modal Condition of Common Areas

    1 = excellent/new
    2 = above average
    3 = average
    4 = below average
    5 = poor

4. Modal Condition of Living Units

    1 = excellent/new
    2 = above average
    3 = average
    4 = below average
    5 = poor

5. Furnishings Present in Living Units

	NO	YES
Chest, desk, chair	2	1

The more adequate the facility the lower the score on the Physical Adequacy Index.

Normalization Index

The normalization score was derived from 30 items covering three major areas: external setting and appearance, staff-inmate interaction, and normalcy of inmate living conditions.

		Scores Assigned	
		Low	High
1.	Exterior obviously a Correctional Institution	No = 1	Yes = 2
2.	Outside Visible to Inmates	Yes = 1	No = 2
3.	Staff are Uniformed	No = 0	Yes = 1
4.	Staff/Inmates Dine together	Yes = 1	No = 2

5. Staff/Inmate Interaction

    1 = Open
    2 = Staff or Inmate Reserve
    3 = Mutual Opposition

6. Modal Normalization of Common Areas

    1 = Home-like furnishings
    2 = Somewhat normalized
    3 = Obviously a Correctional Institution

7. Modal Normalization of Living Units

    1 = Normalized
    2 = Somewhat normalized
    3 = Obviously a Correctional Institution

The more normal or non-penal the facility the lower the score.

Inmate Autonomy Index

The Inmate Autonomy Index was derived by assigning a score of one for each of the following items, when present in the institution:

A. Control of Environment by Inmate

1. View (visability) into own cell
2. Lights
3. Daily Activity Schedule
4. Preparation of meals
5. Meals Schedule
6. Bathing Schedule
7. Bed Schedule

B. Use of Outside Space by Inmate

1. Informal Recreation
2. Formal Recreation
3. Supervised Assignments
4. Visiting
5. Walks

C. Personal Items Permitted

1. Own Clothes
2. Hair Styles
3. Religious Articles
4. Pictures, pillows, crafts, etc.
5. Radio
6. Television
7. Plants, pets

The higher the score the more autonomy given to inmates.

The Communication score was derived by assigning a score of one for each of the following items which concurred, as stated, with institutional policy:

1. Mail Uncensored
2. Incoming Mail not searched
3. Outgoing Mail not searched
4. Free pencils provided
5. Free paper provided
6. Packages permitted
7. All magazines permitted
8. Weekday Visits
9. Evening Visits
10. Week-end Visits
11. Non-family Visits
12. Unlimited Visiting Time
13. Contact Visits
14. No Visitor clearance
15. No Visiting list
16. Furloughs
17. Conjugal Visits
18. Inmate Visits in Rooms
19. Inmate Council
20. Inmate Newspaper

The higher the score the greater the degree of communication.

APPENDIX B

STUDY INSTITUTIONS

1. State Institutions in Study Sample
2. Jails and Local Facilities in Study Sample
3. Selected Community-based Programs

1. STATE INSTITUTIONS IN STUDY SAMPLE

CALIFORNIA
- California Institution for Women (Frontera)

NEW YORK
- Bedford Hills Correctional Facility (Bedford Hills)

TEXAS
- Goree Unit (Huntsville)

ILLINOIS
- Dwight Correctional Center (Dwight)
- Vienna Correctional Center (Vienna)

MICHIGAN
- Detroit House of Corrections (Plymouth)

FLORIDA
- Florida Correctional Institution (Lowell)

MASSACHUSETTS
- Massachusetts Correctional Institution (Framingham)

INDIANA
- Indiana Women's Prison (Indianapolis)

NORTH CAROLINA
- North Carolina Correctional Center for Women (Raleigh)

GEORGIA
- Georgia Rehabilitation Center for Women (Hardwick)

MINNESOTA
- Minnesota Correctional Institution for Women (Shakopee)
- Property Offenders' Program - POPS (Lino Lakes)

WASHINGTON
- Purdy Treatment Center for Women (Gig Harbor)

COLORADO
- Colorado Women's Correctional Institute (Canon City)

NEBRASKA
- State Reformatory for Women (York)

2. JAILS AND LOCAL FACILITIES IN STUDY SAMPLE

CALIFORNIA

Sybil Brand Institute (Los Angeles)
Orange County Jail (Santa Ana)
San Diego County Jail (San Diego)
Santa Rita Rehabilitation Center (Pleasanton)
Santa Clara County Jail (San Jose)
San Francisco County Jail (San Francisco)
Sheriff's San Bernardino County Jail (San Bernardino)
Sacramento County Jail (Elk Grove)
San Mateo County Jail (Redwood City)
Ventura County Jail (Ventura)
San Joaquin County Correctional & Custodial Facilities (French Camp)

NEW YORK

Rikers Island - New York City Department of Corrections (New York)
Monroe County Jail (Rochester)
Nassau County - Department of Corrections (East Meadow)
Westchester County - Department of Corrections (Valhalla)
Erie County Jail (Buffalo)
Erie County Penitentiary (Buffalo)

TEXAS

Harris County Jail (Houston)
Dallas County Jail (Dallas)
Bexar County Jail (San Antonio)
Tarrant County Jail (Ft. Worth)

ILLINOIS

Cook County Department of Corrections, Women's Division (Chicago)
Dupage County Jail (Wheaton)

MICHIGAN

Oakland County Jail (Pontiac)
Kent County Jail (Grand Rapids)
Wayne County Jail (Detroit)

FLORIDA

Dade County Department of Corrections (Miami)
Hillsboro County Jail (Tampa)
Broward County Jail (Ft. Lauderdale)
Palm Beach County Jail (Palm Beach)
Pinellas County Jail (Clearwater)
Orange County Jail (Orlando)

INDIANA

Marion County Jail (Indianapolis)
Lake County Jail (Gary)

NORTH CAROLINA

Mecklenberg County Jail (Charlotte)
Wake County Jail (Raleigh)

GEORGIA

Fulton County Jail (Atlanta)
DeKalb County Jail (Decatur)

MINNESOTA

Hennepin County Jail (Minneapolis)
Ramsey County Jail (St. Paul)
Minneapolis City Workhouse (Minneapolis)

WASHINGTON

King County Jail (Seattle)
Spokane County Jail (Spokane)

COLORADO

Denver County Jail (Denver)

NEBRASKA

Douglas County Jail (Omaha)

WYOMING

Laramie County Jail (Cheyenne)

3. SELECTED COMMUNITY-BASED PROGRAMS

NEW YORK

Parkside, New York City
Project Green Hope, New York City
Quaker Committee on Social Rehabilitation, New York City
Renaissance, Ellenville (Westchester County)

TEXAS

New Directions, Houston (Harris County)
Patrician Movement, San Antonio (Bexar County)

ILLINOIS

Women In New Directions, Chicago (Cook County)

MICHIGAN

Heartline, Detroit (Wayne County)
Project Transition, Detroit (Wayne County)

FLORIDA

Community Correctional Center, Lantana (Palm Beach County)
Fairfield House, Jacksonville (Duval County)
H.E.L.P., Fort Lauderdale (Broward County)
Park House, Tallahassee (Leon County)
Spectrum, Fort Lauderdale (Broward County)
Stepping Stones, Fort Lauderdale (Broward County)
Women Probationer's Residence, Jacksonville (Duval County)

MASSACHUSETTS

Charlotte House, Dorchester (Suffolk County)

INDIANA

Cognition House, Indianapolis (Marion County)

NORTH CAROLINA

Community-Based Facility for Women, Charlotte (Mecklenburg County)
Samaritan Goodwill Center, Fayetteville (Cumberland County)

GEORGIA

Harambee House, Atlanta (Fulton County)
Women's Work Release Center, Atlanta (Fulton County)

MINNESOTA

Freedon House, Minneapolis (Hennepin County)
180 Degrees, Minneapolis (Hennepin County)
Pharm House, Minneapolis (Hennepin County)
Project Elan, Minneapolis (Hennepin County)
Project Interaction, St. Paul (Ramsey County)

WASHINGTON

Dorcas House, Tacoma (Pierce County)
Operation Awareness, Seattle (King County)
Resident Release Project, Seattle (King County)
Studio Club, Seattle (King County)
Women's Community Center, Seattle (King County)

COLORADO

Empathy House, Boulder (Boulder County)
Stepping Stones, Denver (Denver County)

NEBRASKA

Omaha Women's Work Release Center, Omaha (Douglas County)
Miriam Center, Omaha (Douglas County)

APPENDIX C

OFFENSES INCLUDED IN EACH OFFENSE CATEGORY

General Offense Groups	
Homicide	Murder, Manslaughter, Accessory to Murder
Other Violent	Mayhem, Arson, Kidnap, Rape
Robbery	Robbery, Armed Robbery
Assault	Assault, Battery, Assault with Deadly Weapon
Burglary	Breaking & Entering, Burglary
Forgery/Fraud	Forgery ("paper hanging"), Fraud - including Credit Cards, Counterfeiting Checks ("uttering and publishing"), Embezzlement
Larceny	Petty Theft, Shoplifting, Auto Theft, Grand Theft
Drugs	Possession, Sale, Paraphernalia
Prostitution	Same
Other Non-Violent	Drunk, Disorderly, Drunk Driving, Traffic, Vagrancy, Gambling, Possessing Stolen Property, Vandalism, Suspicion, Concealed Weapons, Parole Violations, Other Sex Offenses, Lewd and Lascivious Conduct, Offenses Against Child or Family, Escape, Perjury. (Note: Where prostitution was not listed separately, it is included here.)

APPENDIX D

Occupation/Training Classifications

The occupation/training classifications used in this report were developed to better delineate a specific population - the woman offender. We anticipated that most of the women would appear in the unskilled and service categories as defined by the Bureau of the Census or the Department of Labor, and very few would appear in the professional group. In addition, we found that each major grouping in the Census codes encompasses a wide range of specific occupations with great variation in training or educational prerequisites, skills, income, etc. - the very differences which were most important in our study. Basically, we included in the professional group well-paying jobs which require 4 years or more of college; in the semiprofessional group we included some technicians, health service workers, and paraprofessionals, who must have some college education or special training and can earn a respectable income. No changes were made in the managerial and sales classifications, and only a few changes in clerical, skilled, and semiskilled categories resulted. Teacher aides, library assistants, decorators, and dental technicians were coded as paraprofessionals. Service workers with minimal requirements and low pay were assigned to the unskilled class (maids, counter girls, e.g.); more highly trained women in service to the public (beauticians, waitresses) were coded in personal services, as were dancers and other entertainers.

Major Group Classification	Sub-Group Classifications
Professional	Teacher; Librarian; Dietician; Home Economist; R.N. (registered nurse); Social Worker; Probation/Parole Officer; Sociologist; Psychologist
Managers, Proprietors	Office Manager; Sales Manager; Store Manager; Proprietor of own shop/small business

Major Group Classification	Sub-Group Classifications
Semi-Professional, Technicians	Computer Programmer; Commercial Artist; Drafting; Fashion Designer; Decorator; LVN (licensed vocational or practical nurse); Health, Medical Technician/Assistants; Medical, Dental, Psychiatric Technician/ Assistant; Dental Hygenist (Note except Nurse Aides, see Personal Services); Airline Stewardess, Hostess; Teacher's Aide, Recreation Aide; Counseling, Community Worker (not MSW); Supervisor in Factory, Telephone Company; Armed Forces
Skilled Workers, Craftsmen	Carpenter; Painter; Plumber; Electrician; Chef; Baker, Tailor, Dressmaker (not in factory); Upholsterer; Barber; Telephone Installer; Cutter (of apparel in factory)
Clerical Workers	Secretary; Typist; Stenographer; Bookkeeper; Accounting Clerk; Keypunch Operator; Other Office-machine operator (PBX, MTST); Cashier; White Collar Worker (works in office)
Sales Workers	Sales Clerk; Insurance; Real Estate Workers; Stocks and Bonds Workers
Semi-Skilled Workers	Bus Driver; Truck Driver; Taxi Driver; Cook, Short Order; Electronics Assembler; Sewing-Machine Operator; Blue Collar Worker

Major Group Classification	Sub-Group Classifications
Personal Services	Beauty Operator; Cosmetologist; Nurse Aide; Waitress; Waiter; Bartender; Gardener; Entertainers, Legal; Stripper; go-go girl, dancer; singer; model; masseur; Sexual entertainers; Prostitute; Pimp; Illegal, non-sexual activities; bookie; Pusher; Dealer; Thief; Gambler
Unskilled Workers	Maid; motel maid; Laundry Worker; Sorter; Car-hop; Dishwasher; Cafeteria Worker; Cannery Worker; Farm Worker; Domestic; Babysitter

APPENDIX E

SELECTED RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

1. Observation Schedule
2. Administrator Questionnaire
3. Administrator Interview
4. Education (Sample Program Interview)
5. Inmate Questionnaire

1. OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

(Jail, Prison, Community-Based Project)

1. Name of Institution ____________________

2. State ____________ 3. County ____________

4. Town/City ____________ 5. Year Built ____________

6. Date (s) inspected ____________ 7. Time of Visit (s) ____________

8. Population of city/town in which institution is located ____________

9. Ethnic/racial composition of the neighborhood/district in which the institution is located is predominantly:

1 _____ White (state below if ethnic group is important)
2 _____ Black
3 _____ Other minority (specify) ____________
4 _____ Mixed

COMMENTS ____________________

____

10. The socio-economic status of the neighborhood/district in which the institution is located is predominantly:

1 _____ upper middle class (white collar and professional offices or homes; large successful farms, luxury apartments, new or well maintained area)
2 _____ middle class (some white collar and some blue collar offices, shops; modest homes, some apartments; small industry; average farms)
3 _____ lower middle class (mostly blue collar shops, offices; small, modest homes, apartments; industry; small farms; not particularly well maintained area)
4 _____ lower class (unskilled, semi-skilled workers; housing project, apartments; industry; not well maintained shops or streets; tenant farming)

COMMENTS ____________________

____

11. The area in which the institution is located is predominantly:

1 _____ Commercial (offices, banks, shops)
2 _____ Industrial
3 _____ Residential (single family)
4 _____ Residential (multiple family)
5 _____ Rural
6 _____ Other (specify) ____________

COMMENTS ____________________

____

12. If not in an urban area, distance to the closest town/city area:

__________ In miles

13. __________ In commuting time

COMMENTS ____

____

14. Distance in relation to major urban center (large city, capitol, county seat, etc.)

__________ In miles

15. __________ In commuting time

COMMENTS ____

____

16. How many blocks from public transportation:

1 _____ under 2 blocks
2 _____ 2 to 6 blocks
3 _____ 6 blocks to 1 mile
4 _____ over 1 mile
5 _____ no public transportation (under 5 miles)
6 _____ not applicable

COMMENTS ____

____

	Location of the Institution makes contact with:	Relatively Easy	Not Easy, But Not Difficult	Difficult	Not Applicabl
17.	Family of inmates	1	2	3	4
18.	Community	1	2	3	4
19.	Medical Services/Hospital	1	2	3	4
20.	Legal Services/Court	1	2	3	4
21.	Educational Resources	1	2	3	4
22.	Vocational Training Resources	1	2	3	4
23.	Employment Opportunities	1	2	3	4
24.	Shopping Areas	1	2	3	4

COMMENTS ____

____

SECURITY

25. Regarding your own visit (s)

1 _____ visit (s) was easy to arrange, minimal precautions were taken when you arrived at the institution, no search of your belongings or of your person; you were allowed to carry your belongings into the institution.

2 _____ needed to show proper identification, guard confirmed visit with an administrator, belongings searched, but allowed to bring belongings in to the institution.

3 _____ staff showed concern with security; needed to show identification, your belongings and your person searched; belongings not allowed inside the institution.

COMMENTS ____

____

26. While inside the institution

1 _____ little concern shown with locking doors, little or no concern with escape, most doors remained open to allow movement of inmates.

2 _____ guards showed some concern with locking up rooms after you had entered or left them, some concern and/or mention of security, escape; some control of inmate movement into different areas.

3 _____ relatively high concern with security, lock up, prevention of escape, concern with movement of inmates.

COMMENTS ____

____

27. Institution is classified as

1 _____ minimum security

2 _____ medium security

3 _____ maximum security

COMMENTS ____

____

28. Within the institution, the inmates are classified:

1 _____ minimum

2 _____ medium

3 _____ maximum

4 _____ mixed: minimum & medium

5 _____ Mixed: medium & maximum

6 _____ Mixed: minimum, medium & maximum

7 _____ Other: _______________

8 _____ Not applicable

COMMENTS ____

____

29. Surveillance

1 _____ inmates are not constantly watched or supervised

2 _____ inmates watched electronically (specify area(s)): ______________________

____

3 _____ inmates watched by staff

4 _____ inmates are watched electronically and by staff

COMMENTS____

____

30. Freedom of Movement

1 _____ inmates allowed to move freely from one area to another without staff

2 _____ some freedom to move from area to area, but some restrictions or supervision

3 _____ inmates not allowed to move freely, staff must be present

COMMENTS____

____

31. Number of bed counts per day (24 hour period)

1 _____ zero

2 _____ one

3 _____ two or three

4 _____ more than three

COMMENTS____

____

32. Number of room searches (for contraband) per month

1 _____ zero

2 _____ one

3 _____ two or three

4 _____ more than three

5 _____ only in response to special incident

COMMENTS____

____

BUILDINGS

33. Perimeter

1 _____ no distinct walls or fences around the facility
2 _____ "no man's land", empty space marking perimeter or natural barrier
3 _____ brick or stone wall
4 _____ fence without barbed wire
5 _____ fence with barbed wire
6 _____ other (specify)____

COMMENTS (Note floodlights, laserbeam, gun tower, sentry dogs, height of wall/fence)

____
____
____
____

34. Normalization of Exterior

1 _____ does not appear to be a penal institution; it looks pleasant, it could be a residence, a school, an office, or it is part of an office complex
2 _____ average; some attempt made to soften appearance or to landscape
3 _____ obviously a penal institution, very institutionalized, stark, forbidding

COMMENTS____
____

35. Overall condition of exterior of building

1 _____ excellent, new
2 _____ above average, clean, new paint, well maintained
3 _____ average
4 _____ below average, some repairs needed
5 _____ dirty, needs major repairs

COMMENTS____
____

36. Type of Design

1 _____ one small building
2 _____ group of small buildings
3 _____ one major building
4 _____ part of (or floor) of major building*
5 _____ one major building with other buildings, rooms, cottages
6 _____ campus design
7 _____ other (specify)____

COMMENTS (*Note which floor) ____

____

____

NOTE: Attach sketch of floor plan or layout of buildings.

37. Relationship of building (s) or complex to other correctional institutions.

1 _____ completely separate women's institution*
2 _____ on same grounds or building as men's institution
3 _____ co-ed institution
4 _____ other (specify)____

COMMENTS (*If community-based project, indicate proximity to related correctional institution)

____

____

____

38. Was institution originally built for use as a women's correctional institution?

1 _____ yes
2 _____ no

39. If no, was remodeling, modification or "fix up" done in order to use the building (s) for women?

1 _____ yes
2 _____ no

COMMENTS (Note which areas were affected)______________________________

____

____

40. If other modifications, additions or remodeling have taken place or are under construction which rooms or areas have been affected:

COMMENTS (Exterior and Interior)____

____

____

____

____

____

41. Overall Environmental Condition of Interior:

Time of day visited ______________________

A. Ventilation

1 _____ good (windows, air conditioning, fresh air)
2 _____ average
3 _____ poor (stuffy, stagnant, no ventilation apparent)

B. Temperature

1 _____ comfortable
2 _____ too warm
2 _____ too cool

C. Lighting

1 _____ good (outdoor light through windows, or good placement of indoor lights)
2 _____ average
3 _____ poor (either too bright, harsh, or too dim or dark)

D. Noise

1 _____ average
2 _____ too loud
2 _____ too quiet

E. Smell

1 _____ not noticeable
2 _____ noticeable

COMMENTS ON ENVIRONMENTAL CONDITIONS____

____

____

____

Overall interior environmental rating: __________ (Total of above)

CENTRAL AREAS

List the number of Central or Common Rooms/Areas in the institution.
Code "O" if Room/Area does not exist or is not applicable to the institution.
In Column "A" code the general condition of the Room/Area:

1 = excellent/new	4 = below average
2 = above average	5 = poor
3 = average	

In Column "B" code the amount of space of the Room/Area:

1 = above average/roomy
2 = average, functional
3 = too small/cramped or too large/barn-like

In Column "C" code the degree of normalization of the Room/Area:

1 = personalized/homey
2 = average
3 = obviously penal

			A	B	C
42.	____	Living room/lobby/entry area	____	____	____
43.	____	Control area/control room/booking area	____	____	____
44.	____	Administrator's office (s)	____	____	____
	____	Staff area or office (s)	____	____	____
46.	____	Private conference room (Lawyer/Social Worker)	____	____	____
47.	____	Kitchen	____	____	____
48.	____	Dining room	____	____	____
49.	____	Commissary/canteen	____	____	____
50.	____	Library	____	____	____
51.	____	Classroom (s)	____	____	____
52.	____	Sick room/infirmary	____	____	____
53.	____	Nursery/maternity care	____	____	____
54.	____	Exercise room/area	____	____	____
55.	____	Arts-crafts room/area	____	____	____
56.	____	Chapel	____	____	____
57.	____	Visiting room (s)	____	____	____
58.	____	Other (specify)________________________	____	____	____
59.	____	Other (specify)________________________	____	____	____

COMMENTS ON CENTRAL AREAS

60. Note if any rooms served a dual purpose or were not in use:

61. Note if any room/area was significantly different from the general overall rating:

62. Note the amount and type of furnishings and/or equipment in common areas:

(Note table arrangements in dining room)

63. Note if the following categories or inmates are separated from each other for:

"A" Programs "B" Living Unit

1 = Yes 2 = No 3 = Not Applicable

	A	B
Sentenced and unsentenced	___	___
Misdemeanants and felons	___	___

64. Note if the following categories are separated from the general population (same coding as above):

	A	B
Presentence diagnosis or observation	___	___
New inmates (intake/quarantine/classification)	___	___
Juveniles	___	___
Honor/trustee	___	___
Mentally disturbed	___	___
Parole violators	___	___
Federal offenders	___	___
Other (specify)______________________	___	___

COMMENTS____

____

____

LIVING AREA(S)

[illegible]. How are inmates assigned a bed (living unit/dorm/single room or cell)?

66. Designate each living unit by its function (e.g. isolation area, residence, honor dorm, etc.)

1 ____ 4 ____ 7 ____

2 ____ 5 ____ 8 ____

3 ____ 6 ____ 9 ____

COMMENTS (Note if there are no functional difference between living units, if inmates are assigned to an area randomly):

LIVING AREAS

[illegible]. List the number of cells/rooms in the institution.

Code "O" if the cell/room does not exist or is not applicable to the institution.
In Column "A" code the general condition of the cell/room:

1 = excellent/new
2 = above average
3 = average
4 = below average
5 = poor

In Column "B" code the amount of space of the cell/room:

1 = above average/roomy
2 = average/functional
3 = too small/cramped or too large/barn-like

In Column "C" code the degree of normalization:

1 = personalized/homey
2 = average
3 = obviously penal

Number		A	B	C
______	Isolation Cell	___	___	___
______	Padded Cell	___	___	___
______	Drunk Tank	___	___	___
______	Individual Cells/Rooms	___	___	___
______	2 - Woman Cells/Rooms	___	___	___
______	3 to 4 - Woman Cells/Rooms	___	___	___
______	4 to 8 - Woman Cells/Rooms	___	___	___
______	More than 8 Women per Cell/Room (Specify) __________	___	___	___
______	Dormitories (different than cell)	___	___	___
______	Other (Specify) ______________________	___	___	___

COMMENTS ____

____

____

____

____

68. Note if any cells/rooms were significantly different from the general overall rating:

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

69. Furnishings in a typical cell/room:

1 ____ closet/chest of drawers
2 ____ desk/chair/lamp
3 ____ toilet/sink
4 ____ other (specify)________________________
5 ____ other (specify)________________________

COMMENTS (Note condition and type of furniture)________________

____

____

70. What personal items were evident in the cells/rooms?

1 ____ T.V./radio/record player
2 ____ Plants/pets (fish, birds)
3 ____ Pictures, stuffed animals, pillows
4 ____ Religious objects
5 ____ Other (specify)________________________

COMMENTS ____________________________________

____

____

____

SANITARY FACILITIES

Ratio of Women to Facility

71. ____________ beds per ______________ washbasins

72. ____________ beds per ______________ toilets

73. ____________ beds per ______________ showers/tubs

74. Toilets in typical cell/living unit are:

    1 _____ open to view
    2 _____ private, enclosed

COMMENTS ____

____

76. Please note any exceptions in Sanitary Facilities (e.g. open toilet in drunk tank, bathrooms with bathtubs in honor dorms, etc.)

____

____

____

____

77. Please note if certain types of bathing is considered a priviledge (e.g. only trustees may take a tub bath).

____

____

____

____

NORMALIZATION

78. Is there access to a pay telephone?

    1 _____ Yes
    2 _____ No

COMMENTS (conditions for use) ____________________________

____

____

79. Outside view visible to inmates?

1 _____ Yes
2 _____ Restricted (by bars, size or location of windows)
3 _____ No

COMMENTS ____

____

80. Outside view is

1 _____ pleasant, interesting (city streets with activity, landscaped, space)
2 _____ unpleasant/uninteresting (view of walls or roofs, unmaintained grounds)
3 _____ other (specify) ________________________________

COMMENTS ____

____

81. Outside space asscessible to inmates

1 _____ several outside areas
2 _____ one area only
3 _____ none

COMMENTS ____

____

82. Outside space can be used by inmates for:

	Yes	No	Not Applicable
Informal recreation, leisure	1	2	3
Family visiting	1	2	3
Structured activities, gardening, maintenance	1	2	3
Formal recreation	1	2	3
Walking from area to area	1	2	3
Other (specify) ____________________	1	2	3

COMMENTS ____

____

____

83. Inmates have control over:

	Yes	No	Not Applicable
View into their own cell/room	1	2	3
Lights on or off in their own cell/room	1	2	3
Preparation of their meals or snacks	1	2	3
When they bathe	1	2	3
When they get up and when they go to bed	1	2	3
When they eat (in the dining room)	1	2	3
How they spend their day (whether they must work or attend classes)	1	2	3
Other (specify)________________	1	2	3

COMMENTS____

____

____

____

PERSONALIZATION

84. Inmate clothing

1 _____ inmates may wear their own clothing

2 _____ inmates do not wear exactly the same uniforms, but clothing is issued by the institution; some opportunity for the individualizing of appearance

3 _____ inmates wear the same uniforms, little or no opportunity for individualizatio

COMMENTS____

____

85. Appearance of inmates

1 _____ inmates may wear different hair styles, may set hair, may wear make-up, use hair dryers, etc.

2 _____ some opportunity to keep up personal appearance

3 _____ minimum attention given to personal appearance of inmates; no make-up allowed

COMMENTS____

____

86. Custodial staff clothing

1 _____ uniforms
2 _____ no uniforms
3 _____ other (specify)________________________________

COMMENTS (Note symbols of rank/authority)________________________________

____

____

____

____

INTERACTION

87. Do staff and inmates eat in the same dining room? _________

If yes, at separate tables or together?________________________________

____

88. Do staff tend to group together in any clearly recognizable way? (e.g. custodial vs. program, males vs. females, blacks vs. whites)

____

____

____

____

89. Are places assigned in the dining room? ____________

90. How do staff generally address women

_____ by first name or nickname
_____ by last name (Miss Jones)
_____ by last name alone (Jones)
_____ other (specify)________________________

91. How do inmates generally address staff

_____ by title (lieutenant, deputy)
_____ by first name or nickname
_____ by last name (Miss Jones)
_____ by last name alone (Jones)
_____ by general reference (Miss, Sir, Ma'am)
_____ other (specify)________________________

92. How does administrator address staff

_____ by title and name

_____ by first name

_____ by last name (Miss Jones)

_____ by last name alone (Jones)

_____ by general reference (deputy, counselor)

_____ other (specify)________________________

93. In general, how would you rate the interaction between inmates and staff?

_____ open, friendly, reciprocal

_____ staff seems open, inmates reserved

_____ staff seems somewhat reserved

_____ mutually antagonistic

_____ other (specify)________________________

94. Who showed you around the institution?____________________________

2. ADMINISTRATOR QUESTIONNAIRE

STATE OF CALIFORNIA—Health and Welfare Agency Edmund G. Brown, Jr., Governor

NATIONAL STUDY OF WOMEN'S CORRECTIONAL PROGRAMS
2054 University Avenue, Room 301
Berkeley, California 94704
(415) 464-0546

Dear Friend:

Women offenders account for only a small proportion of all persons arrested and convicted of crimes. Because their number is relatively small, and their crimes generally less threatening to society, they have been largely overlooked, both by the society itself and the criminal justice system in particular. Previous research on the female offender has concentrated almost exclusively on descriptions of isolated programs and individual case studies, resulting in little valid information with which to plan meaningful programs and services.

The present study of women's correctional programs, funded by L.E.A.A., has been developed to provide a comprehensive data base which can be used to develop preliminary guidelines for effective programs for female offenders.

The study has three major components:

1. Collection of population and demographic data on the female offender.
2. Description of institutional and community-based correctional programs for women, taking into account such factors as facilities, staffing, location, educational/vocational programs, medical services, use of community resources, and job opportunities following release.
3. Identification of some of the special needs and problems of the female offender as defined by administrators, staff, and the offenders themselves.

Although we recognized the fact that you have undoubtedly been asked to submit to untold numbers of interviews and to fill out more questionnaires than you'd care to remember, we ask your cooperation (and indulgence) in complying with one more such request.

The following questionnaire was designed for both large and small prisons and jails, therefore some of the items may not apply to your particular situation. Simply mark NA to any item that is not applicable to you. If you have any additional comments, please feel free to write as much as you'd like. If you have any questions that our consultant can't answer, call us (collect) at (415) 464-0546.

At the conclusion of the study, a working conference of people in the field of corrections will be convened to review the findings of the study and to offer recommendations for the development of guidelines and standards for programs in women's corrections. The final report will be published and made available to federal, state, and local criminal justice agencies.

Thank you,

Ruth M. Glick

Ruth M. Glick, Ph.D.
Project Director

RMG:ph

Please check the programs or services that are available at this institution.

Write the name of the staff person in charge of each program.

_____ Intake/Classification ______________________________
_____ Work Assignments ______________________________
    _____ Maintenance ______________________________
    _____ Prison Industry ______________________________
_____ Education ______________________________
    _____ Academic ______________________________
    _____ Vocational ______________________________
_____ Recreation ______________________________
_____ Health Care ______________________________
_____ Counseling/Treatment ______________________________
_____ Religious ______________________________
_____ Work Release ______________________________
_____ Food Services ______________________________

____
Code number

ADMINISTRATOR

General Population Information

1. What is the total capacity (bed space) of this institution? ____________
2. What is your present population? ____________

    If co-ed: Number of Males __________
3. How many females are under 18? __________
4. Are any Federal prisoners serving time here? ____________

    If yes: How many? ____________
5. How many women are here for parole violations? ____________
6. During 1974:

    What was the highest count? __________

    What was the lowest count? __________

    What is the average population? __________
7. Approximately how many inmates are severely mentally ill? __________
8. Approximately how many inmates are severely mentally retarded? __________
9. Please fill in the table on the following page describing the institutional population by offense, race and age. Please note, if you use other offense categories, cross out any that do not apply and write in your own. Do the same for age groupings.

    If this information is not available by offense please use bottom line to show totals by age and race.

    Racial groupings are identified as follows:

    B - Black

    W - White

    S - Spanish Speaking (Mexican, Puerto Rican)

    I - American Indian

    O - Other (incl. Oriental, etc.)

III. INSTIUTIONAL POPULATION AS OF ______________

____
Code number

Offense	Total	Female	By Race Female only					Age[1]							
			B	W	S	I	O	Under 18	18-21	22-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46+
Murder, 1st															
Murder, 2nd															
Manslaughter															
Armed Robbery															
Assault															
Fraud															
Forgery															
Embezzlement															
Burglary															
Grand Larceny															
Petty Theft															
Prostitution															
Drug Possession															
Drug Sales															
Drunk Driving															
Drunk/Disorderly															
Other:															
Other:															

---

[1] If these groupings are not the ones you use, cross them out and write in your own.

____
Code number

Staff Information*

10. How many full-time employees are there for the female population? ____________

How many males? __________

How many females? __________

How many of the total number are:

_____ Black
_____ White
_____ Spanish-speaking
_____ American Indian
_____ Other (incl. Oriental, etc.)

How many of the total number are correctional officers, deputies, custodial staff, etc.?

____

11. Do you have any part-time staff?

If yes,

How many? __________

What positions? ____________________
____
____

12. Do any outside agencies provide staff for the institution? __________

If yes,

How many positions? __________

What agencies? ______________________________
____
____

13. How would you describe your staff turn-over?

____ fairly stable (less than 10% per year)
____ moderate turn-over
____ high turn-over (more than 50% per year)

---

*Please attach an updated copy of your organizational chart (if available).

____
Code number

14. Are salaries competitive with jobs in the community

for professional staff? ________

for custody staff? ________

If no, are they higher or lower? ____

____

Budget Information

15. What was your budget allocation for

1974 ________________ 1975 ________________

16. How much of your budget is spent for

Salaries ________________

Operating expenses, etc. ________________

17. Are you solely responsible for deciding how your budget is spent? ________

If no, who else is involved? ____

____

18. If any of your operating expenses are absorbed by another institution, estimate the percent or dollar amount per year? ________

What services do they provide? (e.g. food, repairs) ________________

____

____

____

19. If available, what is the cost per inmate per year? ________

How is this figure calculated? ____

____

____

____
Code number

20. Is there an inmate welfare fund? ________

If yes, where does the money come from? ______________________________

How are funds generally spent? ______________________________

Rules and Operating Procedures

21. Are the rules and regulations of the institution specified in writing:

For inmates ____________

For staff ____________

Mail

22. Is mail censored? ________

23. Is mail searched for contraband? ________

If yes,

_____ all mail

_____ in-coming only

_____ out-going only

Any exceptions? ______________________________

24. How often is incoming mail distributed? ______________________

25. How often is outgoing mail collected? ______________________

26. Can inmates receive packages? ________

If yes, any restrictions? ______________________________

____
Code number

27. Are packages searched? ________

If yes, by whom? ______________________________

____

28. Are any specific magazines or newspapers not permitted? ________

If yes, please list which ones: ______________________

____

____

____

____

Visiting

29. What are the rules concerning visiting? (If you have a copy of the rules, please attach)

If not:

a. When are visiting hours? ______________________

____

b. Who may visit? ______________________

____

c. How often? ______________________

d. How long? ______________________

30. Are there special arrangements

for emergencies ______________________

if lengthy travel is involved ______________________

for special events (e.g. birthdays)______________________

31. Are contact visits permitted? ________

32. What is the average number of visitors per month? ________

33. What is your policy regarding furloughs? ______________________

____

____

____

____
Code number

34. If you permit conjugal visits, please describe the program (who is eligible, how often, where, etc.)

____

____

____

Do you provide contraceptives? ____

____

Is any type of counseling available either before or after such a visit? __________

____

____

Daily Schedule

35. If you have a copy of the daily schedule, please attach it to this questionnaire.

If not, please fill in the following items as they apply to the average inmate and note any variations in the margins or in the comments below.

a. What time do inmates get up? ____________

b. What time is breakfast? ____________
lunch? ____________
dinner? ____________

c. What time must inmates be in their living unit at night? ____________

d. When much lights be turned off? ____________

e. What activities or work assignments are scheduled:

in the morning ____

____

____

in the afternoon ____

____

____

____
Code number

after dinner ____

____

____

____

on weekends ____

____

____

____

f. Describe any special activities or events that may affect the schedule

____

____

____

g. Are inmates permitted to visit in each others rooms? __________

If yes, are there any restrictions? ____________________

____

____

Additional comments ____

____

____

____

Discipline/Rule Violations

36. What are the most common infractions?

Minor Infractions	Disciplinary action likely to result (outcome)

____
Code number

-8-

Major Infractions	Disciplinary action likely to result (outcome)

37. What are the procedures for handling major infractions? ______________

38. How are minor infractions handled and by whom? ______________

39. How long can an inmate be kept in isolation? ______________

40. During the past 5 years have there been any major disturbances or fires? ________

If *yes*, describe briefly, including approximate date(s) ______________

41. During the past year have there been any escapes or attempted escapes? ________

If *yes*, how many? ________

____
Code number

-9-

42. Has the American Bar Association, Legal Aid, ACLU or other legal groups been active here? ________

If yes, in what way? ______________________________

43. Have there been or are there now any law suits pending against this institution? ______

If yes, what was (or is) the nature of the case(s)? ______________________________

44. Do you have a law library? ________

If yes, do the inmates show interest in using it and if so, in what ways?

Additional Comments ______________________________

3. ADMINISTRATOR INTERVIEW

1. What is the average length of stay of an inmate? ____________

   What effect does this have on the programs that you can offer? ____________

2. How do you deal with inmates who are mentally ill? ____________

3. How do you deal with inmates who are mentally retarded? ____________

4. **JAIL:**

   Are unsentenced prisoners given credit for time served awaiting trial or sentence? ____________

   Do sentenced inmates get time off for good behavior? ____________

   Do sentenced inmates get time off for work? ____________

   PRISON:

   How can a woman earn "good time"? ____________

5. Does your location make hiring difficult? ____________

6. What effect has affirmative action had on hiring staff? (males, minorities) ____________

____
Code number

7. Do you feel that your program is adequately staffed in the following areas:

custody ________

education ________

medical care ________

treatment ________

other (specify) ________

COMMENTS ________

8. What additional staff would you want to hire? ________

9. If outside agencies provide staff (see page 2, number 11 of Administrator Questionnaire)

What are the advantages? ________

What are the disadvantages? ________

10. How would you describe staff morale? ________

Are there any conflicts between custody and treatment staff or problems caused by union or other employee groups?

____
Code number

11. How do you maintain contact with staff on three different shifts? (try to find out whether administrator is available on weekends and in the evenings on a regular basis)

12. If additional money were available to you, how would you want to use it? _______________

13. If there is an institution manual or a printed list of rules and regulations:

Did you inherit these rules and regulations from your predecessor or did you write them? _______________

What is the reading level of the inmate manual and how does the inmate who can't read learn the rules? _______________

(If applicable) Have the rules been translated into Spanish? _______________

14. How are visitors cleared? _______________

15. For what reasons are visiting rights withheld? _______________

16. What access do women have to writing materials? (pencils, pens, etc.) _______________

______ Code number

17. Have you noticed any changes in the female offender population over the years? ______

What? ______

18. Would you say that the women's movement has affected either the number or type of women offenders? ______

____ being treated more severely by courts, police, etc.
____ actually committing more violent crimes
____ committing more crimes alone

19. Can you estimate # of inmates who had a male partner or partners in the crimes they committed? ______

20. In what ways do you think female offenders may differ from their male counterparts?

21. What are the special needs of female offenders? ______

Code number

22. What programs in here are designed to meet these needs?

23. Of all the things that go on in here, what do you think is most useful to the inmates for getting along in here?

24. Of all the things that go on in here, what do you think will be most useful for the inmates when they get out?

25. Of all the things that go on in here, what do you think is least useful for the inmates?

26. How would you define the goals of this institution?

27. What are some of the obstacles to achieving those goals? (staff, budget, community, political climate)

____
Code number

28. What do you see as current trends in corrections? (esp. related to females)

29. What are some of the drawbacks to these new programs?

Additional Comments

4. EDUCATION (SAMPLE PROGRAM INTERVIEW)

1. Describe the building or area where educational programs take place.

2. Educational Staff

Administrators

____ Director of Education
____ Supervisor of Academic Education
____ Supervisor of Vocational Education
____ Guidance Counselor
____ Other (specify)____________________
____ ____________________

Teachers

	# Full Time	# Part Time
____ Academic	____	____
____ Vocational	____	____
____ Other (specify)____________	____	____
____ ____________	____	____

3. Do staff receive special training or orientation to work in a correctional institution?

____________ Code number

III-2

4. Are teaching methods or classroom procedures modified in any way to fit the correctional setting? (e.g. smaller classes, individualized instruction, homework assignments done during class time, etc.)

ACADEMIC EDUCATION

5. What courses are offered?

Code "O" if program is available, but no students enrolled.

Code "NA" if program is not available.

		# of Students	By Race					When is class held
			B	W	S	I	O	
Remedial:	Reading							
	Arithmetic							
High School:	English							
	Math							
	History							
College:								

6. Can students work and still attend classes? ____________

Explain ____________

____
Code number

III-3

7. Can inmates get a high school diploma or GED? __________

8. Can inmates get a college degree (A.A.)? __________

9. In addition to regular classes, are any of the following available:

		COMMENTS
____	Individual Tutoring	____________________
____	Correspondence Courses	____________________
____	Study release	____________________
____	Counseling	____________________
____	Bilingual programs	____________________

10. What type of A-V equipment or specialized methods are utilized?

		COMMENTS
____	Tape recorders	____________________
____	Projectors	____________________
____	Programmed instruction	____________________
____	T.V. classes	____________________
____	____________	____________________
____	____________	____________________

11. How does an inmate get into the academic program?

____ strictly voluntary
____ mandatory if she has lower than average reading skills
____ mandatory if she doesn't have a high school diploma
____ strongly recommended (encouraged) if she has lower than average reading skills or she doesn't have a high school diploma
____ other (explain)____

____
Code number

III-4

12. Are any inmates paid to attend school? ____________________

13. Special classes (adult education)

	Who Teaches the Class	How often offered
____ Consumer Education		
____ Family Life Education		
____ Child Development		
____ Personal Grooming		
____ Feminine Development		
____ ____________		
____ ____________		

COMMENTS ____________________

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

14. What courses are offered?

Code "O" if program is available, but no students enrolled.

Code "NA" if program is not available.

	# of Students	By Race B	W	S	I	O	When is class held
Typing							
Shorthand							
Bookkeeping							
Fashion Design							
Interior Design							
Drafting							
Data Processing							
____________							

____
Code number

III-5

Describe condition and quantity of equipment where relevant ____________________

____

____

____

____

15. How does an inmate get into the vocational program?
    ____ strictly voluntary
    ____ strongly recommended by staff if she has no job skills
    ____ mandatory if she has no job skills
    ____ other (explain)____

    ____

16. In general, would you say the eduction program is
    ____ very important to inmates
    ____ somewhat important
    ____ not very important

17. How would you rate staff attitudes toward the education program
    ____ strongly supportive
    ____ moderately supportive
    ____ opposed

18. What changes (if any) would you like to see in the education program? __________

    ____

    ____

    ____

VOCATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAMS

19. What vocational training programs do you have? (see Chart)
20. Who initiates the planning of new programs?________________________________

    ____

____
Code number

III-6

21. Who is involved in the planning? ______________________

____

22. How is the need for such a program established? ______________________

____

____

23. Do inmates have any input? __________

24. Why might you terminate a program? ______________________

____

____

25. Do you have any contact with the State Employment Department? (specify: for labor market information, placement, etc.)

____

____

____

____

Code number ____________

VOCATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAMS

PROGRAM	Number of Hours of Classroom Training	Number of Hours of Practical Experience	Does any training take place in the community	Does program meet State license requirements	Are there any restrictions for exoffenders	Are inmates paid to participate? If yes, how much?	How is the program funded?
Nurses Aide							
Vocational Nurse							
Cosmetology							
Keypunch							
Electronics							
Medical Assistant							
Lab Assistant							
Food Services							

[For *each* Vocational Training Program listed fill out form on next page]

____
Code number

III-8

VOCATIONAL TRAINING

Title of Program ____________________

	B	W	S	I	O
Number involved	__	__	__	__	__

1. How does an inmate enter this program? (and at what point in her sentence?)

2. What criteria are used to exclude an inmate from this training? (length of sentence, drug usage, etc.)

3. Can she use her new skills while still in the institution? ____________

4. Can she expect to get a job in this field when released? (Specifics, such as labor market demand, contact with industry or union for placement, etc.)

5. Is equipment used in training comparable to equipment currently used in industry?

6. Should the program be modified in any way to improve its effectiveness? ____________

5. INMATE QUESTIONNAIRE

STATE OF CALIFORNIA—Health and Welfare Agency
Edmund G. Brown, Jr., Governor

NATIONAL STUDY OF WOMEN'S CORRECTIONAL PROGRAMS
2054 University Avenue, Room 301
Berkeley, California 94704
(415) 464-0546

Dear Friend:

You have been selected to participate in a national study of women's correctional programs that is now going on in thirteen states in different parts of the country. It is the first study of women offenders that has ever been done on such a large scale.

The purpose of the study is to describe the activities and services presently available to women in prisons, jails and community-based programs in order to develop standards and guidelines for improving present conditions.

The questionnaire that you are being asked to fill out will provide some of the background information that is needed in order to plan more effective programs. All of the answers to the questions are completely confidential. The questionnaires will not be shown to anyone in this institution. You are not required to sign your name.

Please feel free to add any comments that you want to.

On behalf of all of the people working on this project, I want to thank you for your participation and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Ruth M. Glick, Ph.D.
Project Director

RMG:ph

1. How old are you? ________

2. How old were you when you were arrested for the very first time? ________

3. Were you ever held as a juvenile?

   _____ (1) No

   _____ (2) Yes, in juvenile hall, only

   _____ (3) Yes, committed to a girls' institution

4. As an adult, have you ever served time before?

   _____ (1) no prior time served

   _____ (2) on probation only

   _____ (3) served time in jail only

   _____ (4) served time in both jail and prison

   _____ (5) served time in prison only

5. What is your ethnic group or race?

   _____ (1) American Indian

   _____ (2) Black

   _____ (3) Mexican-American/Puerto Rican

   _____ (4) White

   _____ (5) Other ______________________

6. Has any member of your family ever been in jail or prison before?

   _____ (1) Yes

   _____ (2) No

7. Have any of your close friends on the outside ever been in jail or prison before?

   _____ (1) Yes

   _____ (2) No

8. When were you admitted to this institution?

_______________ 19____
Month Year

9. What crime are you being held for?

_____ (1) shoplifting, petty theft, or larceny

_____ (2) forgery or fraud

_____ (3) burglary

_____ (4) robbery

_____ (5) prostitution

_____ (6) assault

_____ (7) possession or sale of drugs

_____ (8) manslaughter, homicide, murder

_____ (9) other ____________________________

10. Did you commit this crime for which you are being held:

_____ (1) entirely alone

_____ (2) with a male partner or accomplice

_____ (3) with a female partner or accomplice

_____ (4) did not commit crime for which you are accused

11. What is your sentence? (What sentence were you given by the Court?)

_____ (1) unsentenced

_____ (2) less than 90 days (3 months)

_____ (3) 90 to 180 days (3 to 6 months)

_____ (4) 6 months to one year

_____ (5) one to three years

_____ (6) more than three years

FOR PRISON ONLY

12. Length of time to parole hearing

_____ (1) already had hearing, date set

_____ (2) less than 3 months

_____ (3) 3 to 6 months

_____ (4) 6 months to one year

_____ (5) one to two years

_____ (6) more than two years

_____ (7) I don't know

_____ (8) no parole possible

FOR JAIL ONLY

12. How long until you are released? (Counting "good time", "time off for good behavior", "time already served", etc.)

_____ (1) less than 90 days (3 months)

_____ (2) 90 to 180 days (3 to 6 months)

_____ (3) 6 months to one year

_____ (4) one to three years

_____ (5) more than three years

_____ (6) no release or parole possible

_____ (7) I don't know

13. What was the highest year in school that you completed?

_____ (1) 8th grade or less

_____ (2) 9th, 10th, or 11th grade

_____ (3) high school graduate

_____ (4) some college

_____ (5) college graduate

14. Besides your regular schooling, did you ever have any vocational training?

_____ (1) No

_____ (2) Yes, vocational school

____
What kind of training?

_____ (3) Yes, in jail or prison

____
What kind of training?

_____ (4) Other _________________________

15. Just before you came here, who did you live with or who lived with you? (Check as many as apply)

_____ (1) with legal husband

_____ (2) with common law husband/boyfriend

_____ (3) with children

_____ (4) with other relatives

_____ (5) with friend(s)

_____ (6) lived alone

16. Right now are you considered:

_____ (1) legally married

_____ (2) common law married/boyfriend

_____ (3) separated or divorced

_____ (4) widowed

_____ (5) single, never married

17. Have you ever been: (Check as many as apply)

_____ (1) legally married (How many times: _____)

_____ (2) common law married/boyfriend

_____ (3) separated or divorced

_____ (4) widowed

_____ (5) never married

18. How many children do you have? __________

19. How many of your children, under the age of 18, were living with you just before you came here?

____

20. Who is taking care of your children under the age of 18, while you are here?

_____ (1) your mother and/or father

_____ (2) your husband/boyfriend

_____ (3) other relatives

_____ (4) friends

_____ (5) foster parents, ward of the Court, other agency

21. When you were a child, who did you live with most of the time?

_____ (1) mother

_____ (2) mother and father together

_____ (3) father

_____ (4) other relatives

_____ (5) other people

22. When you were a child, how many times did you move so that you had to go to a new school?

_____ (1) never

_____ (2) once

_____ (3) two times

_____ (4) three times

_____ (5) four or more times

23. When you were a child, what type of job did your parent(s) or the people you lived with work at most often?

____

24. When you were a child, would you say that your family or the people you lived with:

_____ (1) never had enough money

_____ (2) had about enough money

_____ (3) had more than enough money

25. When you were a child, did your parent(s) or the people you lived with ever receive welfare, relief, or aid to dependent children?

_____ (1) Yes

_____ (2) No

26. Have you ever worked at a job on the outside?

_____ (1) Yes

_____ (2) No

27. Did you have a job on the outside in the two months before you came here?

_____ (1) Yes, what type of job _____________________

_____ (2) No

28. What kinds of jobs have you had most often on the outside?

____

29. What was the best job you ever had?

____

30. If you could have any job, what kind of a job would you want?

____

31. If anyone else helped to pay for food and rent before you came here, who helped the most?

_____ (1) mother or father
_____ (2) husband or boyfriend } _____________________ What type of job?
_____ (3) other relatives
_____ (4) friends
_____ (5) welfare
_____ (6) no one helped

32. As an adult, did you ever receive relief, welfare, or aid to dependent children?

_____ (1) Yes

_____ (2) No

33. Here in the institution, do you have a work assignment?

_____ (1) No

_____ (2) kitchen, dining room

_____ (3) housework, clean-up, maintenance work inside

_____ (4) gardening, clean-up, maintenance outside

_____ (5) clerical

_____ (6) hospital, sick room

_____ (7) laundry

_____ (8) prison industry

_____ (9) other ______________________________

34. How many hours do you spend on the average each day on your institutional work assignment?

_____ (1) 1 to 3 hours

_____ (2) 4 to 5 hours

_____ (3) 6 to 8 hours

_____ (4) other ______________________________

35. How much are you paid for your work? ____________________

36. Do you participate in any of the following types of activities or programs?

_____ (1) arts, crafts, music

_____ (2) high school classes

_____ (3) college courses

_____ (4) vocational courses or vocational training

_____ (5) alcohol discussion group or drug discussion group

_____ (6) church

_____ (7) other ______________________________

37. Of all the things that go on in here, what thing, activity, or program has been the most useful to you in getting along in here?

____

____

38. Of all the things that go on in here, what thing, activity, or program will be the most useful when you get out?

____

____

39. Of all the things that go on in here, what thing, activity, or program is the least worthwhile?

____

____

YOUR COMMENTS:

____

____

____

____

____

ON THE FOLLOWING PAGES ARE SOME STATEMENTS. IF YOU MOSTLY AGREE WITH A STATEMENT, PLEASE CIRCLE THE "1". IF YOU MOSTLY DISAGREE WITH A STATEMENT, PLEASE CIRCLE THE "2".

		AGREE (YES)	DISAGREE (NO)
1.	People can control much of what happens in their lives.	1	2
2.	Compared to other women, I haven't done too badly with my life.	1	2

		AGREE (YES)	DISAGREE (NO)
3.	Most people listen to what I have to say.	1	2
4.	If I had a choice, I'd rather stay at home than have a job.	1	2
5.	A man can take just as good care of children as a woman can.	1	2
6.	There's something wrong with women who want to work at men's jobs.	1	2
7.	It's not what you know, but who you know that is important in life.	1	2
8.	I have worked harder than most of the men I have known.	1	2
9.	A woman who doesn't want to have children is selfish.	1	2
10.	Any job I could get on the outside would probably be a drag.	1	2
11.	It is possible for me to help improve conditions in here.	1	2
12.	A career woman can be just as happy as a woman who stays at home with her family.	1	2
13.	The men in my life have depended on me to help support them.	1	2
14.	I wouldn't want to work for a woman.	1	2
15.	If a woman is working at a job, her man should help her do housework.	1	2
16.	I wish my life had been different.	1	2
17.	It's good for a woman to have a job on the outside, even if she has someone to support her.	1	2
18.	It's important for a woman to have children.	1	2

		AGREE (YES)	DISAGREE (NO)
19.	No matter what I do, I always seem to make mistakes.	1	2
20.	Women are too emotional to hold jobs that carry a lot of responsibility.	1	2
21.	A man has the right to insist that his woman stay at home, rather than take a job.	1	2
22.	Women don't have much chance to get good jobs on the outside.	1	2
23.	A woman should expect her man to support her.	1	2
24.	In general, I don't expect my life to change much in the future.	1	2
25.	I'd like to know more about legal matters.	1	2
26.	Most women are immature.	1	2

. . . .

WE WOULD LIKE YOU TO THINK ABOUT SOME JOBS THAT WOMEN MIGHT HOLD. IF YOU THINK IT IS OK IF A WOMAN HOLDS THAT JOB, PLEASE CIRCLE THE "1". IF YOU DON'T THINK IT IS OK, THEN PLEASE CIRCLE THE "2".

		O.K.	NOT O.K.
1.	Car mechanic	1	2
2.	Lawyer	1	2
3.	Carpenter	1	2
4.	Sheriff	1	2
5.	Truck driver	1	2
6.	Judge	1	2
7.	Bartender	1	2
8.	Doctor	1	2
9.	Warden	1	2
10.	Bank teller	1	2
11.	Plumber	1	2
12.	Grocery store clerk	1	2

THE END

THANK YOU VERY MUCH

APPENDIX F

DATA BRIEFS ON PRISONS AND JAILS

CALIFORNIA

CALIFORNIA INSTITUTION FOR WOMEN

Capacity: 972 **Actual Number:** 752

Year Built: 1952 **Security:** medium

Design: Campus

Living Accommodations: individual rooms, isolation cells, Psychiatric Treatment Unit

Cost per Inmate: $9,300 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 2.42:1

Average Time Served: 17 months

Size of Community: Frontera, pop. less than 2,500, rural

Distance to Service Area: 9 miles to Ontario, pop. 64,118

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 70 miles to Los Angeles, pop. 2,809,896

Public Transportation: none within 5 miles

ALAMEDA COUNTY JAIL (SANTA RITA)

Capacity: 140 **Actual Number:** 85

Year Built: N/A **Security:** medium

Design: one building in correctional complex

Living Accommodations: 2 dormitories for 45 women each, 4 isolation cells, 6 cells for 6-8 women

Cost per Inmate: $6,044 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 3.1:1

Average Time Served: 1 month

Size of Community: Pleasanton, pop. 18,328

Distance to Service Area: 5 miles to downtown Pleasanton

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 30 miles to Oakland, pop. 361,561

Public Transportation: none within 5 miles

CALIFORNIA

ORANGE COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: N/A **Actual Number:** 63

Year Built: 1968 **Security:** maximum

Design: single building in correctional complex

Living Accommodations: 32 individual cells, 1 drunk tank, 8 cells for 15 women, 2 padded cells

Cost per Inmate: N/A **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 2.3:1

Average Time Served: 1 month

Size of Community: Santa Ana, pop. 156,876

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in metropolitan area

Public Transportation: within 1 block

SACRAMENTO COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 86 **Actual Number:** 61

Year Built: 1973 **Security:** medium

Design: single building in correctional complex

Living Accommodations: 25 individual cells, 1 dormitory for 4-8 women, 2 dormitories for 32-35 women, 1 padded cell

Cost per Inmate: $6,198 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 2.3:1

Average Time Served: 3 months

Size of Community: Elk Grove, pop. 3,721, rural

Distance to Service Area: 23 miles to Sacramento, pop. 257,105

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 23 miles to Sacramento.

Public Transportation: none within 5 miles

CALIFORNIA

SAN BERNARDINO COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 112 **Actual Number:** 43

Year Built: 1971 **Security:** maximum

Design: one single building

Living Accommodations: 32 individual cells, drunk tank, 10 cells for 4-8 women

Cost per Inmate: N/A **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 3.6:1

Average Time Served: 3 months

Size of Community: San Bernardino, pop. 104,783

Distance to Service Area: 3 miles to San Bernardino

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 60-70 miles to Los Angeles

Public Transportation: within 6 blocks to 1 mile

SAN DIEGO COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 106 **Actual Number:** 62

Year Built: 1970 **Security:** maximum

Design: 1 floor of single building

Living Accommodations: 4 dormitories, 2 isolation cells, 1 padded cell

Cost per Inmate: $5,661 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 2.3:1

Average Time Served: 1 month

Size of Community: San Diego, pop. 697,027

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in metropolitan area

Public Transportation: within six blocks

CALIFORNIA

SAN FRANCISCO COUNTY JAIL #4

Capacity: 57 **Actual Number:** 33

Year Built: 1932 **Security:** medium

Design: single building in correctional complex

Living Accommodations: 48 individual rooms, 1 dormitory

Cost per Inmate: N/A **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 2.4:1

Average Time Served: 6 months

Size of Community: San Bruno, pop. 36,254

Distance to Service Area: 3-5 miles to San Bruno

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 15 miles to San Francisco, pop. 715,674

Public Transportation: none within 5 miles

SAN JOAQUIN COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 57 **Actual Number:** 36

Year Built: N/A **Security:** medium

Design: single building

Living Accommodations: 5 double cells, 1 dormitory, 1-2 individual cells, 1 drunk tank, 1 padded cell, 1 isolation cell

Cost per Inmate: $4,526 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 1.9:1

Average Time Served: 3 months

Size of Community: French Camp, pop. less than 2,500

Distance to Service Area: 1 mile to downtown French Camp

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 5-7 miles to Stockton.

Public Transportation: within 1 mile

CALIFORNIA

SAN MATEO COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 53

Actual Number: 25

Year Built: N/A

Security: maximum

Design: 1 floor of single building

Living Accommodations: 4 individual cells, 2 cells for 16 women, 1 drunk tank

Cost per Inmate: N/A

Inmate/Staff Ratio: 1.7:1

Average Time Served: 1 month

Size of Community: Redwood City, pop. 55,686

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 30 miles to San Francisco

Public Transportation: within 2 blocks

SANTA CLARA COUNTY JAIL (ELMWOOD)

Capacity: 133

Actual Number: 82

Year Built: N/A

Security: medium & maximum

Design: single building in correctional complex

Living Accommodations: 22 individual cells, 2 dormitories, 1 drunk tank, 2 isolation cells, 2 padded cells, 2 cells for juveniles

Cost per Inmate: N/A

Inmate/Staff Ratio: 1.82:1

Average Time Served: N/A

Size of Community: Milpitas, pop. 32,400

Distance to Service Area: 1/2 mile

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 5-10 miles to San Jose.

Public Transportation: within 2-6 blocks

CALIFORNIA

SYBIL BRAND INSTITUTE

Capacity: 979

Actual Number: 740

Year Built: N/A

Security: maximum

Design: single building

Living Accommodations: 48 double cells, 12 dormitories, 2 padded cells, 8 isolation cells, 2 drunk tanks, individual cells

Cost per Inmate: $6,059

Inmate/Staff Ratio: 3.1:1

Average Time Served: N/A

Size of Community: Los Angeles, pop. 2,809,596

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in metropolitan area

Public Transportation: more than 1 mile

VENTURA COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 56

Actual Number: 36

Year Built: 1927-28

Security: maximum

Design: 1 floor of single building in correctional facility

Living Accommodations: 10 cells for 3-4 women, 2 cells for approx. 16 women, 1 drunk tank, 6 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: N/A

Inmate/Staff Ratio: 4.5:1

Average Time Served: 4 months

Size of Community: Ventura, pop. 57,964

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in metropolitan area .

Public Transportation: within 2 blocks

COLORADO

COLORADO WOMEN'S CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTE

Capacity: 90 **Actual Number:** 80

Year Built: 1967 **Security:** medium

Design: single building

Living Accommodations: 90 individual rooms, 8 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: $6,200 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 1.5:1

Average Time Served: 13 months

Size of Community: Canon City, pop. 9,206, rural (5 miles from prison)

Distance to Service Area: 35 miles to Pueblo, pop. 97,453

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 105 miles to Denver, pop. 514,678

Public Transportation: none within 5 miles

DENVER COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 62 **Actual Number:** 21

Year Built: 1954 **Security:** maximum

Design: part of single building

Living Accommodations: 7 individual cells, 2 isolation cells, 2 dormitories, 1 padded cell

Cost per Inmate: $4,745 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 2.6:1

Average Time Served: 1 month

Size of Community: Denver, pop. 514,678

Distance to Service Area: 12 miles to downtown Denver

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 12 miles

Public Transportation: within 2 blocks

FLORIDA

FLORIDA CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTION

Capacity: 500

Actual Number: 519

Year Built: 1948

Security: medium

Design: Campus

Living Accommodations: 79 isolation cells, 12 double cells, 5 dormitories, 4 trailers

Cost per Inmate: $5,720

Inmate/Staff Ratio: 2.76:1

Average Time Served: N/A

Size of Community: Lowell, pop. less than 2,500, rural

Distance to Service Area: 10 miles to Ocala, pop. 22,583

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 91 miles to Jacksonville, pop. 528,865

Public Transportation: none within 5 miles

DADE COUNTY WOMEN'S DETENTION CENTER

Capacity: 144

Actual Number: 115

Year Built: unknown; became women's facility in 1972

Security: maximum

Design: 1 floor of single building

Living Accommodations: 5 dormitories, 2 cells for 4-8 women, 8 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: $6,000

Inmate/Staff Ratio: 2.3:1

Average Time Served: 3 months

Size of Community: Miami, pop. 347,618

Distance to Service Area: in service area.

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in metropolitan area.

Public Transportation: within 1 block

FLORIDA - GEORGIA

HILLSBOROUGH COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 51 **Actual Number:** 58

Year Built: 1964 **Security:** maximum

Design: 1 floor of single building

Living Accommodations: 2 individual cells, 2 cells for 18 women, 2 cells for 4-8 women, 1 cell for 3-4 women, 2 holding cells

Cost per Inmate: N/A **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 5.8:1

Average Time Served: N/A

Size of Community: Tampa, pop. 289,740

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in metropolitan area

Public Transportation: within 1 block

GEORGIA

GEORGIA REHABILITATION CENTER FOR WOMEN

Capacity: N/A **Actual Number:** 377

Year Built: 1928 **Security:** medium

Design: single building

Living Accommodations: 60 double cells, 6 dormitories, 6 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: $2,920 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 6.5:1

Average Time Served: 3 years

Size of Community: Milledgeville, pop. 11,601

Distance to Service Area: 35 miles to Macon, pop. 122,423

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 102 miles to Atlanta, pop. 497,421

Public Transportation: none within 5 miles

GEORGIA

DeKALB COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 413 (includes men) **Actual Number:** 21

Year Built: 1973 **Security:** medium

Design: 1 floor of single building

Living Accommodations: 1 dormitory, 5 individual cells, 1 isolation cell

Cost per Inmate: N/A **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 3.5:1

Average Time Served: 1 month

Size of Community: Decatur, pop. 21,943

Distance to Service Area: 5 miles to downtown Decatur

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 10 miles to Atlanta

Public Transportation: within 2 blocks

FULTON COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 916 (includes men) **Actual Number:** 60

Year Built: 1960 **Security:** maximum

Design: part of single building

Living Accommodations: 13 individual cells, 1 dormitory for 10 women, 2 dorms for 30 women, 1 trustee dorm for 12 women, 4 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: N/A **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 7.5:1

Average Time Served: 1 month

Size of Community: Atlanta, pop. 474,600

Distance to Service Area: 5 miles to downtown Atlanta

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in metropolitan area

Public Transportation: within 2-6 blocks

ILLINOIS

DWIGHT CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTION

Capacity: 200 **Actual Number:** 146 (101 women)

Year Built: 1930 **Security:** medium

Design: complex with cottages

Living Accommodations: 200 individual rooms, 10 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: $12,000 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 0.70:1

Average Time Served: 42 months

Size of Community: Dwight, pop. 3,841, rural

Distance to Service Area: 2 miles to Dwight

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 89 miles to Chicago, pop. 3,369,359

Public Transportation: none within 5 miles

VIENNA CORRECTIONAL CENTER

Capacity: 634 **Actual Number:** 395 (58 women)

Year Built: 1966 + 1969 **Security:** minimum

Design: Campus

Living Accommodations: 56-58 individual cells, 3 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: $9,890 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 2.23:1

Average Time Served: 24 months

Size of Community: Vienna, pop. less than 2,500, rural

Distance to Service Area: 60 miles to Carbondale, pop. 22,816

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 358 miles to Chicago, pop. 3,369,359

Public Transportation: none within 5 miles

ILLINOIS

COOK COUNTY DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONS, WOMEN'S DIVISION

Capacity: 270 **Actual Number:** 160

Year Built: 1973 **Security:** maximum

Design: single building within a complex

Living Accommodations: individual cells, 4 isolation cells, 4 padded cells

Cost per Inmate: N/A **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** N/A

Average Time Served: 6 months

Size of Community: Chicago, pop. 3,369,359

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in metropolitan area

Public Transportation: at entrance to the jail

DU PAGE COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: N/A **Actual Number:** 1

Year Built: 1973 **Security:** maximum

Design: 1 floor of single building

Living Accommodations: 8 individual cells

Cost per Inmate: N/A **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 0.5:1

Average Time Served: 1 month

Size of Community: Wheaton, pop. 31,183

Distance to Service Area: 1/2 mile to center of Wheaton

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 40 miles to Chicago

Public Transportation: less than 2 blocks

INDIANA

INDIANA WOMEN'S PRISON

Capacity: 145 **Actual Number:** 89

Year Built: 1873 **Security:** medium

Design: Campus with cottages

Living Accommodations: 138 individual rooms, 6 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: $6,406 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 1.05:1

Average Time Served: N/A

Size of Community: Indianapolis, pop. 744,743

Distance to Service Area: is within service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: less than 10 miles from city center

Public Transportation: less than 2 blocks

LAKE COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 410 (includes men) **Actual Number:** 8

Year Built: 1975 **Security:** maximum

Design: 1 floor in single building

Living Accommodations: 1 padded cell, 1 drunk tank, 4 individual cells, 4 cells for 8 women

Cost per Inmate: $10,068 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 4:1

Average Time Served: 8 months

Size of Community: Crown Point, pop. 10,931

Distance to Service Area: 2 miles to center of Crown Point

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 15 miles to Gary, pop. 175,415

Public Transportation: none within 5 miles

INDIANA - MASSACHUSETTS

MARION COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 42 **Actual Number:** 31

Year Built: 1965 **Security:** areas for minimum, medium, maximum

Design: 1 floor of single building

Living Accommodations: 1 dormitory, 1 isolation cell

Cost per Inmate: $3,997 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 1.4:1

Average Time Served: 1 month

Size of Community: Indianapolis, pop. 744,743

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in downtown metropolitan area

Public Transportation: within 1 block

MASSACHUSETTS

MASSACHUSETTS CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTION

Capacity: 168 **Actual Number:** 139 (80 women)

Year Built: 1877 **Security:** minimum

Design: Campus

Living Accommodations: 132 individual rooms, 20 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: $12,850 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 1.36:1

Average Time Served: 9 months

Size of Community: Framingham, pop. 64,048

Distance to Service Area: 2 miles to center of Framingham

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 23 miles to Boston, pop. 641,071

Public Transportation: none within 3 miles

MICHIGAN

DETROIT HOUSE OF CORRECTIONS

Capacity: 400

Actual Number: 308

Year Built: 1927

Security: medium

Design: Cottages

Living Accommodations: 272 individual cells, 19 rooms for 3-4 women, 18 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: N/A

Inmate/Staff Ratio: 4.67:1

Average Time Served: N/A

Size of Community: Plymouth, pop. 11,748, rural

Distance to Service Area: 5 miles to center of Plymouth

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 22 miles to Detroit, pop. 1,513,601

Public Transportation: none under 5 miles

KENT COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 356 (includes men)

Actual Number: 30

Year Built: 1958

Security: medium

Design: part of single building

Living Accommodations: 1 double cell, 3 cells for 12 women, 2 drunk tanks

Cost per Inmate: $3,300

Inmate/Staff Ratio: 6:1

Average Time Served: 3 months

Size of Community: Grand Rapids, pop. 208,000

Distance to Service Area: is within service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: is within metropolitan area

Public Transportation: less than 1 mile

MICHIGAN

OAKLAND COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 480 (includes men) **Actual Number:** 35

Year Built: N/A **Security:** maximum

Design: part of single building

Living Accommodations: 6 cells for 4-8 women, 8 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: N/A **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 4.4:1

Average Time Served: 3 months

Size of Community: Pontiac, pop. 85,279

Distance to Service Area: is within service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: is within metropolitan area

Public Transportation: within 2-6 blocks

WAYNE COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 759 (includes men) **Actual Number:** 42

Year Built: 1929 **Security:** maximum

Design: part of 1 floor in single building

Living Accommodations: 49 individual rooms

Cost per Inmate: $12,410 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 3:1

Average Time Served: 1 month

Size of Community: Detroit, pop. 1,513,601

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in downtown Detroit

Public Transportation: within 2 blocks

MINNESOTA

MINNESOTA CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTION FOR WOMEN

Capacity:	70	**Actual Number:**	39
Year Built:	1923	**Security:**	minimum

Design: Complex

Living Accommodations: 9 double rooms, 42 individual rooms, 7 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate:	$20,281	**Inmate/Staff Ratio:**	.93:1

Average Time Served: 10 months

Size of Community: Shakopee, pop. 6,876, suburbs

Distance to Service Area: 1 mile

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 26 miles to Minneapolis, pop. 434,400

Public Transportation: over 1 mile

MINNESOTA PROPERTY OFFENDER'S PROGRAM (POP'S)

Capacity:	16	**Actual Number:**	15
Year Built:	1963	**Security:**	minimum

Design: Cottage within complex

Living Accommodations: 16 individual rooms in cottage

Cost per Inmate:	N/A	**Inmate/Staff Ratio:**	1.5:1

Average Time Served: 6 months

Size of Community: Lino Lakes, pop. 3,692, rural

Distance to Service Area: 3-4 miles to Circle Pines

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 20 miles to St. Paul, pop. 309,980

Public Transportation: none within 5 miles

MINNESOTA

HENNEPIN COUNTY JAIL

Capacity:	250 (includes men)	**Actual Number**:	15
Year Built:	late 1800's	**Security**:	maximum
Design:	1 floor of single building		
Living Accommodations:	2 dormitories, 5 isolation cells, 8 individual cells		
Cost per Inmate:	$4,062	**Inmate/Staff Ratio**:	1.3:1
Average Time Served:	1 month		
Size of Community:	Minneapolis, pop. 434,400		
Distance to Service Area:	in service area		
Distance to Metropolitan Area:	in metropolitan area		
Public Transportation:	within 2 blocks		

RAMSEY COUNTY JAIL

Capacity:	98 (includes men)	**Actual Number**:	5
Year Built:	1903	**Security**:	maximum
Design:	1 floor in single building		
Living Accommodations:	7 double cells, 3 drunk tanks		
Cost per Inmate:	N/A	**Inmate/Staff Ratio**:	.83:1
Average Time Served:	1 month		
Size of Community:	St. Paul, pop. 309,980		
Distance to Service Area:	in service area		
Distance to Metropolitan Area:	in metropolitan area		
Public Transportation:	within 2 blocks		

NEBRASKA

NEBRASKA STATE REFORMATORY FOR WOMEN

Capacity: 72 **Actual Number:** 53

Year Built: 1911 **Security:** medium

Design: Complex

Living Accommodations: 72 individual rooms, 3 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: $7,483 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 1.33:1

Average Time Served: 13 months

Size of Community: York, pop. 6,778, rural

Distance to Service Area: 50 miles to Lincoln

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 105 miles to Omaha, pop. 346,929

Public Transportation: none within 5 miles

DOUGLAS COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 22 **Actual Number:** 11

Year Built: 1920 **Security:** maximum

Design: 1 floor of single building

Living Accommodations: 4 cells for 3-4 women, 1 cell for 4-8 women

Cost per Inmate: $4,698 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 2.75:1

Average Time Served: 2 months

Size of Community: Omaha, pop. 346,929

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in downtown Omaha

Public Transportation: within 2 blocks

NEW YORK

BEDFORD HILLS CORRECTIONAL FACILITY

Capacity: 410 **Actual Number:** 365

Year Built: 1900 **Security:** medium

Design: Complex

Living Accommodations: 408 individual cells, 29 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: $15,900 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 1.06:1

Average Time Served: 18 months

Size of Community: Bedford Hills, pop. under 2,500

Distance to Service Area: 15 miles from Yonkers, pop. 204,297

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 37 miles from New York, pop. 7,895,563

Public Transportation: none within 5 miles

ERIE COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: N/A **Actual Number:** 33

Year Built: 1958. **Security:** maximum

Design: single building

Living Accommodations: 25 individual cells, 3 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: N/A **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** N/A

Average Time Served: 1 month

Size of Community: Buffalo, pop. 628,000

Distance to Service Area: is within service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: is within metropolitan area

Public Transportation: within 2-6 blocks

NEW YORK

ERIE COUNTY PENITENTIARY

Capacity: 55 **Actual Number:** 16

Year Built: 1926 **Security:** medium

Design: Complex

Living Accommodations: 35 individual cells

Cost per Inmate: $6,628 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 2:1

Average Time Served: N/A

Size of Community: Alden, pop. 2,500

Distance to Service Area: 18 miles

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 30 miles to Buffalo, pop. 462,768

Public Transportation: none within 5 miles

MONROE COUNTY SHERIFF'S DEPARTMENT AND JAIL

Capacity: 26 **Actual Number:** 22

Year Built: 1962 **Security:** maximum

Design: part of 2 floors in single building

Living Accommodations: 24 individual cells, 2 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: $11,680 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 2.43:1

Average Time Served: 1 month

Size of Community: Rochester, pop. 437,00

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in metropolitan area

Public Transportation: 2 blocks

NEW YORK

NASSAU COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 622 (63 women)   Actual Number: 22

Year Built: 1957   Security: maximum

Design: single building (part of 2 floors)

Living Accommodations: 63 individual cells

Cost per Inmate: $10,003   Inmate/Staff Ratio: 0.79:1

Average Time Served: 1 month

Size of Community: Elmsford, pop. 3,911

Distance to Service Area: less than 5 miles to White Plains, pop. 50,346

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 1 hour from New York City

Public Transportation: in front of jail

RIKERS ISLAND

Capacity: 679   Actual Number: 373

Year Built: 1971   Security: medium

Design: single building

Living Accommodations: 580 individual cells, 4 dormitories, 10 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: $8,545   Inmate/Staff Ratio: 1.06:1

Average Time Served: 2 months

Size of Community: New York City, pop. 7,895,563

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in metropolitan area

Public Transportation: 2 blocks

NEW YORK - NORTH CAROLINA

WESTCHESTER COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 62

Actual Number: 18

Year Built: 1967

Security: medium

Design: single building

Living Accommodations: 56 individual rooms, 6 isolation cells, 2 drunk tanks

Cost per Inmate: $32,532

Inmate/Staff Ratio: 0.56:1

Average Time Served: 3 months

Size of Community: Valhalla, pop. approx. 10,000

Distance to Service Area: 15 miles to Mount Vernon, pop. 72,778

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 20 miles to New York City

Public Transportation: 2 blocks

NORTH CAROLINA

CORRECTIONAL CENTER FOR WOMEN

Capacity: 500

Actual Number: 420

Year Built: 1932

Security: medium

Design: Campus

Living Accommodations: 120 individual cells, 20 cell for 3-4 women, 8 dormitories, 12 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: $3,665

Inmate/Staff Ratio: 3.50:1

Average Time Served: N/A

Size of Community: Raleigh, pop. 123,763

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 161 miles to Charlotte, pop. 241,178

Public Transportation: less than 1 mile

NORTH CAROLINA

MECKLENBURG COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 354 (includes men)

Actual Number: 15

Year Built: 1970

Security: medium

Design: single building

Living Accommodations: 2 cells for 16 women, 5 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: $3,033

Inmate/Staff Ratio: 1:1

Average Time Served: 1 month

Size of Community: Charlotte, pop. 350,000

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in metropolitan area

Public Transportation: within 2 blocks

WAKE COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 128 (includes men)

Actual Number: 4

Year Built: 1970

Security: all levels

Design: 1 floor of single building

Living Accommodations: 12 individual cells

Cost per Inmate: $2,738

Inmate/Staff Ratio: 1.33:1

Average Time Served: 1 month

Size of Community: Raleigh, pop. 121,577

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in metropolitan area

Public Transportation: within 2 blocks

TEXAS

GOREE UNIT (WOMEN'S PRISON)

Capacity: 709 Actual Number: 662

Year Built: Security: maximum

Design: Complex

Living Accommodations: 5 dormitories, 132 individual cells, 208 double cells, 34 isolation cells, 34 quarantine

Cost per Inmate: $1,675 Inmate/Staff Ratio: 6.62:1

Average Time Served: 16 months

Size of Community: Huntsville, pop. 17,610

Distance to Service Area: 5 miles to Huntsville

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 71 miles to Houston, pop. 1,232,802

Public Transportation: 5 miles

BEXAR COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 944 (includes men) Actual Number: 33

Year Built: 1962 Security: maximum

Design: 1 floor of single building

Living Accommodations: 11 double cells, 1 drunk tank, 2 isolation cells, 3 individual cells, 1 cell for 10 women, 1 cell for 24 women

Cost per Inmate: $2,241 Inmate/Staff Ratio: 3.7:1

Average Time Served: 1 month

Size of Community: San Antonio, pop. 380,000

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in metropolitan area

Public Transportation: less than 2 blocks

TEXAS

DALLAS COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 227 **Actual Number:** 124

Year Built: 1962 **Security:** maximum

Design: 1 floor of single building

Living Accommodations: 10 individual cells, 6 double cells, 23 cells for 4-8 women, 10 isolation cells, 1 dormitory

Cost per Inmate: $3,103 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 8.3:1

Average Time Served: 12 months

Size of Community: Dallas, pop. 844,401

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in metropolitan area

Public Transportation: 2-6 blocks

HARRIS COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: 135 **Actual Number:** 133

Year Built: 1957 **Security:** maximum

Design: single building (1 floor)

Living Accommodations: 16 cells for more than 8 women, 1 double cell, 5 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: $2,399 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 12.1:1

Average Time Served: 4 months

Size of Community: Houston, pop. 1,250,000

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in metropolitan area

Public Transportation: 2 blocks

WASHINGTON

PURDY TREATMENT CENTER FOR WOMEN

Capacity: 178 **Actual Number:** 150

Year Built: 1970 **Security:** minimum

Design: Campus

Living Accommodations: 166 individual cells, 6 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: $14,428 **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 1.30:1

Average Time Served: 18 months

Size of Community: Gig Harbor, pop. less than 2,500, rural

Distance to Service Area: 14 miles to Tacoma, pop. 154,581

Distance to Metropolitan Area: 42 miles to Seattle

Public Transportation: none within 5 miles

KING COUNTY JAIL #2

Capacity: 96 **Actual Number:** 45

Year Built: 1958 **Security:** medium

Design: 1 floor of single building

Living Accommodations: 17 double cells, 1 cell for 4-8 women, 5 cells for 10 women, 4 padded cells

Cost per Inmate: N/A **Inmate/Staff Ratio:** 4.5:1

Average Time Served: 1 month

Size of Community: Seattle, pop. 530,000

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in metropolitan area

Public Transportation: in front of jail

WASHINGTON - WYOMING

SPOKANE COUNTY-CITY JAIL

Capacity: 420 (includes men)

Actual Number: 22

Year Built: 1970

Security: maximum

Design: 1 floor of single building

Living Accommodations: 12 individual cells, 2 dormitories, 1 double cell, 4 isolation cells

Cost per Inmate: $2,499

Inmate/Staff Ratio: 4.4:1

Average Time Served: 1 month

Size of Community: Spokane, pop. 170,516

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in metropolitan area

Public Transportation: within 2 blocks

WYOMING

LARAMIE COUNTY JAIL

Capacity: N/A

Actual Number: none

Year Built: 1921

Security: maximum

Design: 1 floor of single building

Living Accommodations: 2 cells for 4 women, 1 isolation cell

Cost per Inmate: N/A

Inmate/Staff Ratio: N/A

Average Time Served: 1 month

Size of Community: Cheyenne, pop. 50,000

Distance to Service Area: in service area

Distance to Metropolitan Area: in metropolitan area

Public Transportation: within 2 blocks

APPENDIX G

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

This bibliography has been compiled and distilled from several sources; the criteria for inclusion in this list are:

1. A date of publication no earlier than 1965 (There are a few exceptions, and even with this limitation, much of the material *published* during this period was *written* prior to 1965.)
2. The majority of entries relate to the *adult* female offender.
3. The information has direct relevance to the study. (Many references dealing with homosexuality in prison were not included, but a few of the major works are listed since they include descriptive material on various institutions.)
4. The articles and books are, in fact, available.

The last point is extremely important for those who are interested in further research in this field. We have spent untold hours in an attempt to track down obscure references; we hope to save others some of that trouble.

As a space-saving measure, we have not listed materials collected from states, including annual reports of state departments of corrections, state and local probation and parole reports, and other public documents which are readily available as public information.

The bibliography is ordered in the following manner: Books (General References, Statistical References, and Female Offender); Journal and Magazine Articles; Monographs and Research Documents; Dissertations; and Bibliographies.

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